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ABSTRACT

The curriculum planning guide was developed to assist teachers (K-12) in developing comprehensive social studies education programs, identifying appropriate goals, and in evaluating and reporting student progress. This booklet's content is presented in nine sections. The first, in introduction for teachers, explains how to use the guide and identifies models for use in various kinds of planning situations. Section II provides information on assessing current programs. Section III reviews the process of developing a rationale for a social studies program. Section IV explains how to identify, clarify, and seek agreement on the nature of social studies and how to determine the scope of the program. Section V provides information on selecting goals and objectives and refers readers to a list of sources of learning objectives in the appendix. Sections VI and VII focus on choosing content and on identifying and selecting curriculum materials. Section VIII reports on evaluation and testing procedures. The final section explains how to install and maintain a social studies program and suggests how to encourage community involvement. Learning activities, handouts, and additional resources are included in each section. (DB)

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PLANNING A SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

Activities, Guidelines, and Resources

edited by

James E. Davis and Frances Haley

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education
and
Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
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PREFACE

In June 1976, a group of educators met at the Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey, to discuss criteria for developing the 1980 STEP (Sequential Test of Educational Progress) social studies tests. At that meeting Roger Wangen, social studies consultant for the state of Minnesota, discussed the need for a program model based on student outcomes. He also felt that a sequential model was needed which began with student-centered objectives; continued with the identification, selection, and implementation of curriculum materials; and was culminated by a strong assessment program that would let program planners know whether the desired outcomes were being attained.

As a result of Wangen's concern for a holistic model, staff members of the Social Science Education Consortium, the ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, the Educational Testing Service, the National Council for the Social Studies, the Social Studies Development Center at Indiana University, and the Minnesota Department of Education combined their talents and time to produce this document.

In September 1976, Frances Haley, James E. Davis, Craig Kissock, Gerald Marker, Irving Morrissett, and Roger Wangen met in Boulder, Colorado, to begin the conceptualization of this publication. Out of this planning meeting came a tentative model for social studies program planning and a commitment to draw on as many existing resources as possible in developing the paper.

Planning continued in November 1976, when a meeting was held at the Minnesota Department of Education in St. Paul. In addition to five of the original planners--Haley, Davis, Kissock, Marker, and Wangen--Larry Beaber attended as representative of the Educational Testing Service and Bob Sierer brought to the meeting the viewpoint of a school district planner. At the November meeting the final model (see page 5) was developed and it was decided that SSEC and ERIC/ChESS would be copublishers of the document and that Davis and Haley would edit the paper. Other members of the group were assigned to write various sections.

Throughout the development of *Planning a Social Studies Program,* the activities were tested with social studies curriculum leaders. In mid-February 1977, 25 curriculum leaders from eastern states met for two days in

Philadelphia to review a working draft of the paper and offer critiques of the activities on rationale, scope, and choosing objectives. The group also offered a number of suggestions for the evaluation section, part of which was subsequently prepared by Eileen Peters and Michael Zieky of the Educational Testing Service. Other people from school districts in Minnesota, Colorado, Michigan and California also offered valuable feedback on the activities.

We wish to thank Matt Sherman of the Educational Testing Service and Irving Morrissett, executive director of the Social Science Education Consortium, for their thoughtful input in the early planning stages of the publication. Don Boeckman, a social studies teacher at Westminster High School in Westminster, Colorado, provided useful comments on the entire manuscript. Frances McKibben, social studies department chairperson at Ridgeview High School in Atlanta, and Alan Tom, associate professor of education at Washington University, served as the NCSS reviewers. Their critical comments were very valuable in revising the paper.

Ann Williams made a significant contribution through her editorial prowess. Mary Jane Turner helped to organize and annotate many of the references. Cherie Kuhn, with the capable assistance of Jeanne Malta, demonstrated her first-rate typing talents in preparing the manuscript for printing.

To all who participated in this project, we offer our gratitude.

James E. Davis
Frances Haley

Boulder, Colorado
December 1977

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1. INTRODUCTION

James E. Davis

Two Short Cases

Case 1. "For the past year we have had groups of teachers and administrators working on the development of objectives for the social studies curriculum. Experts in history, geography, civics, and other social sciences have been invited to tell us what we should be doing. We have made long lists of goals, and we have tried to specify objectives for each grade level. We're blue in the face from writing and rewriting objectives. I hope we can finish this job soon. We have to adopt new materials next year, and we need some criteria for selection. Other than getting tired, our committees don't feel they are getting anywhere."

Case 2. "We're in the process of developing courses and selecting new social studies curriculum materials. There sure is a lot of stuff available! We think we've designed some good courses that kids will be excited about. I hope we can get these course plans finished soon; we need to adopt materials before the end of the budget year."

These reports typically describe two kinds of processes that take place in school districts year after year. In the first case, a district is rethinking its entire social studies program. School officials have decided, probably explicitly, that those who are responsible for conducting the program should define what they want to do. The advantage of using this kind of process, of course, is that many individuals are involved in the planning. Their participation at this stage may ultimately lead to ownership of and commitment to the program. However, as the report of one participant indicates, the process of developing objectives can be frustrating and discouraging.

The second case also involves many individuals in planning the social studies program. However, instead of first defining program objectives, this district has implicitly chosen to accept whatever objectives are stated in the materials ultimately selected.

Let us play out the scenarios in each of these cases:

Case 1. "Well, we finally identified our objectives, so we will be able to comply with the new accountability mandates that just came from the state legislature. We can select our materials this fall. Then, during the second semester, we can plan for evaluation of the program. I'm worried, though. What if there aren't good evaluation instruments available in the materials we choose? Where can I get information about test questions and about the kinds of skills needed to do a good assessment?"

Case 2. "Whew! We got all those materials purchased just before the budget deadline. Then the board told us to come up with an evaluation plan for the social studies program. I'm not sure what we'll do. We have a lot of exciting materials and good courses. But I'm not sure we can present a very convincing evaluation plan. Since our program is so innovative, it may not lend itself to the nationally normed tests that we give, but we may have some good tests in the materials. I feel stuck, and I don't know what we should do."

Clearly, the critical element in both cases is pressure on a district to become accountable for its social studies program. Accountability is not a new notion in education. Many states have instituted legislation requiring school districts to become more accountable. We now frequently hear such terms as *needs assessment, educational assessment,* and *educational efficiency*. Whatever these terms are adjudged to mean in a particular state, or however they are interpreted by a local board or administration, the concept is with us--and it is likely to be with us for some time to come.

Fortunately or unfortunately, most accountability mandates do not focus on social studies. Reading, writing, and arithmetic seem to be the major areas of concern. In a recent survey of 48 state departments of education, only 18 had accountability-related activities in social studies. According to state social studies specialists, there were two reasons why social studies received relatively little attention: (1) social studies was not considered a priority area (26 responses) and (2) social studies was considered too difficult to measure (7 responses).*

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*Sharryl Hawke, Christine Ahrens, and Irving Morrissett, *State Accountability Activities and the Social Studies: A Nationwide Survey, A Proposed General Accountability Model, and Some Guidelines* (Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1975), p. viii.

Our concern about the results of this survey is twofold. First, it is alarming that social studies is not considered a priority area. Are we an endangered species? Second, are social studies outcomes really too difficult to measure? Perhaps there is a grain of truth in that assertion. Yet, are we not shirking our professional responsibility by claiming that we can't measure social studies outcomes?

In developing this guide, we have taken a number of strong positions:

1. It is our responsibility as social studies professionals to become accountable for what we do. As a matter of fact, we should take the leadership in demonstrating the results of our efforts. If we do not, less-qualified people will.

2. We believe that the starting point for sound and accountable social studies curriculum planning should be the consideration, selection, and adaptation of already developed student-centered objectives.

3. Using existing resources in the field (e.g., objectives developed by the National Council for the Social Studies Guidelines, the Curriculum Materials Analysis System, and the National Assessment for Educational Progress) will enhance and legitimize the curriculum planning operation.

4. Social studies curriculum planning should take place in a climate of support from the school administration, the state department of education, and the community at large; curriculum planners should not assume a posture of defensiveness.

5. Social studies professionals should be primarily responsible for social studies program planning.

6. The pressure for accountability offers an opportunity to reconsider what our social studies programs are all about--a task many of us tend to put off because of other demands on our time and energy.

In short, accountability pressures demand that social studies professionals take the leadership in planning and implementing the social studies program. A truly accountable program (1) is planned with the participation of all interested parties, (2) clearly explains anticipated outcomes to the public, and (3) is subject to evaluation and subsequent revision.

A Model for Social Studies Curriculum Planning

A useful model for planning social studies curriculum based on student-centered objectives is illustrated in Figure 1. The model includes the two kinds of planning processes described at the beginning of this section--the case in which a district decides to begin by developing its own objectives and the case in which a district starts by developing courses and selecting materials. Our model shows the logical series of steps to be followed if either process is used.

The most logical place to start in designing a social studies program would be to develop a rationale, or philosophical basis, for the program (see box 1 of the model in Figure 1). Section 3 of this guide suggests an activity that is useful in formulating such a rationale. However, since the process of developing a rationale is often difficult and discouraging for a newly formed planning group, we suggest that consideration of program rationale be deferred until after objectives have been selected.

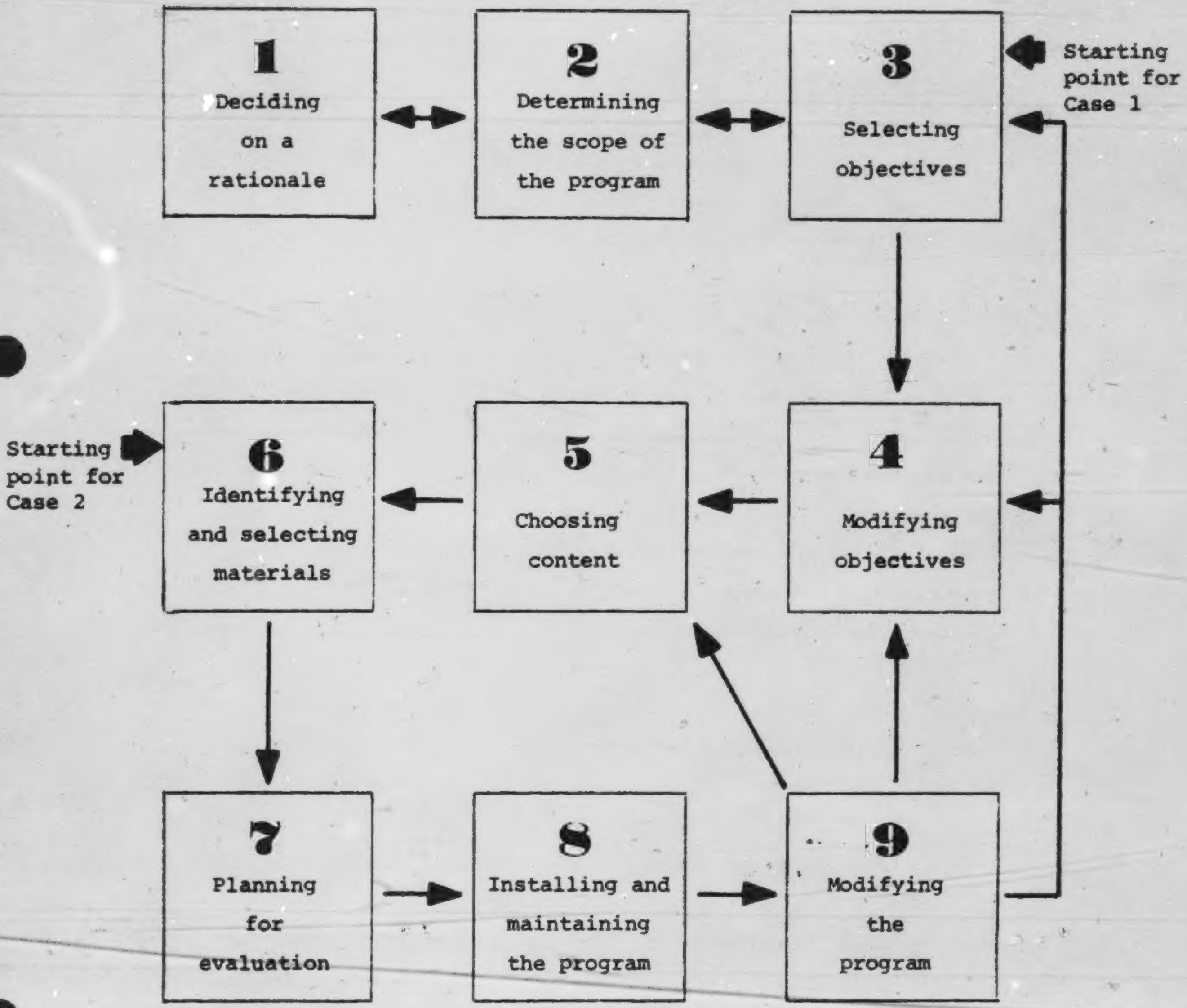
Perhaps a better starting point for most groups would be to define the scope of the program (see box 2). Are the planners primarily interested in teaching social science disciplines? Current world problems? Social studies skills? What can be included in a workable program? What needs to be excluded? These are just a few of the questions that must be considered. Section 4 of this guide is designed to help a planning group tackle some of the problems related to scope.

We recommend that a school district select objectives from existing resources (see box 3). Section 5 outlines procedures for selecting goals and objectives; some sources of objectives are identified in Appendix C. Our own first choice would be the social studies and citizenship objectives developed by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. These objectives have been reviewed by social studies professionals, social scientists, school administrators, evaluation specialists, and lay people. Although they were developed for a national audience and thus may need to be adapted to local needs and goals, we believe they are applicable to social studies programs throughout the nation. Each objective is accompanied by valid and reliable test items that can be used for assessment.

By advocating that social studies curriculum planning groups choose goals and objectives from existing resources, we are not implying that a group cannot develop its own list. We also realize that the objectives initially selected probably will require modifications or additions (see box 4).

Figure 1

A MODEL FOR SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM PLANNING
BASED ON STUDENT-CENTERED OBJECTIVES


1
Deciding on a rationale
2
Determining the scope of the program
3
Selecting objectives
Starting point for Case 1
4
Modifying objectives
5
Choosing content
6
Identifying and selecting materials
Starting point for Case 2
7
Planning for evaluation
8
Installing and maintaining the program
9
Modifying the program

Once goals and objectives have been established, the means of achieving them must be selected (see box 5). To some extent we are departing from tradition by suggesting that a variety of content might be appropriate for many objectives. For example, an objective identifying data analysis as a desirable skill might be attained through teaching any social science discipline. Section 6 offers some recommendations and observations about choosing content.

After content has been chosen, the next step--identification and selection of curriculum materials--can be taken (see box 6). Section 7 offers procedural suggestions and selection criteria that are useful in this process.

Evaluation may seem an overwhelming task to some (see box 7). We are not advocating extensive, elaborate, or expensive evaluation procedures. Rather, in Section 8, we offer some timely tips and practical ideas for constructing student tests and making social studies programs more accountable.

Objectives have been decided upon, content has been established, materials have been purchased, and evaluation has been planned. Now it is time to talk about implementing the new or revised program (see box 8). Implementation usually requires inservice training for teachers, and possibly for administrators. While inservice training often is a primary focus of implementation, Section 9 suggests a broader perspective for this phase of planning and offers some helpful hints about program maintenance--the ongoing process of modification, improvement, and attention to problems as they occur.

How to Use This Guide

This guide has been designed primarily to be used with groups of people who are working on curriculum change. If you are working individually, you may want to read through the sections and proceed with the activities alone. However, we strongly urge that you work with a committee of teachers, parents, administrators, and perhaps students.

Handouts for each suggested activity are printed separately so that you can easily remove them and duplicate them. The entire guide is bound in a loose-leaf format to enable you to use sections, activities, and handouts flexibly.

Note that the model presented in Figure 1 is dynamic--you can enter the model at any stage, depending on the current status of your social studies program planning.

Table 1 shows approximate time requirements for completion of each section activity. These figures are based on field test results with a number of client groups.

Table 1

APPROXIMATE TIME THAT SHOULD BE ALLOTTED
FOR COMPLETION OF EACH SECTION ACTIVITY

Section		Time	
No.	Activity	In Work Group	Outside Work Group
2	Assessing the current program	3/4-1 hour	---
3	Deciding on a rationale	1-1½ hours	2-4 hours
4	Determining scope of the program	2-2½ hours	---
5	Selecting goals and objectives	3-5 hours	1-2 hours
6	Choosing content	Varies with makeup of work group	Varies with makeup of work group
7	Identifying and selecting materials	Varies with scope of analysis	Varies with scope of analysis
8	Planning for evaluation and testing	1½-2 hours	Varies with extent of evaluation plan
9	Installing and maintaining the program	1½-2 hours	Varies with extent of action plan

The order in which the sections can be used is flexible. It is not necessary to start with Section 2 and proceed through Section 9 (sequence A below), although this is a desirable sequence. Table 2 offers five alternative sequences.

Table 2

FIVE POSSIBLE SEQUENCES FOR USING THE SECTION ACTIVITIES

Section		Sequence				
No.	Activity	A	B	C	D	E
2	Assessing the current program	1	---	---	---	---
3	Deciding on a rationale	2	5	4	3	1
4	Determining scope of the program	3	1	---	---	---
5	Selecting goals and objectives	4	2	1	---	---
6	Choosing content	5	3	2	1	---
7	Identifying and selecting materials	6	4	3	2	2
8	Planning for evaluation and testing	7	6	5	4	3
9	Installing and maintaining the program	8	7	6	5	4

Sequence B enables the group to proceed with detailed curriculum planning without first developing a social studies rationale statement. Sequence C is similar to sequence B, except that the planning group may not want to spend time narrowing the scope of the social studies. Sequence D and E allow for early materials selection. In D the rationale is developed after curriculum materials are selected; in E the rationale is developed first.

We urge that a rationale statement be developed early in the curriculum planning process. However, it is often felt by curriculum planners that the rationale should "fall out" of the planning process. At whatever point in the process a rationale is developed, it should be the result of thoughtful consideration. A rationale should never be created simply to "rationalize" program decisions that have already been made.

Additional Resources

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For a list of libraries in your area that subscribe to the ERIC system, write to ERIC/ChESS, 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302.

Anthony, Robert B. "Changing the Social Studies Curricula: Some Suggestions and Aids." *Social Studies* 66, no. 5 (September/October 1975), pp. 208-210.

This article discusses four major components of curriculum change which face social studies departments today: staff concerns, evaluating the curriculum, content, and restructuring the curriculum.

Cogan, John, and John H. Letcher. "Social Studies After Curriculum Reform: Some Unfinished Business." *Elementary School Journal,* no. 1 (October 1974), pp. 55-61.

The need for a coordinated approach to social studies curriculum development is discussed in this article. Among the issues considered are goals, learner participation, human-centered programs, values and the valuing process, content resources, and teacher education.

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Gross, Richard E. "Social Education--Toward a Viable Curriculum." *Teacher* 94, no. 2 (October 1976), pp. 39-45.

This article describes the development of social studies and the need to establish its place in the educational curriculum.

Jarolimek, John. "In Pursuit of the Elusive New Social Studies." *Educational Leadership* 30, no. 7 (April 1973), pp. 596-99.

Jarolimek presents suggestions for developing meaningful changes in the social studies curriculum and reviews past social studies programs.

Knox, Gary A. *If It Ain't Survival. . .It's Catastrophe: A Social Studies Curriculum for a Modern World.* Corte Madera, Calif.: Marin County (California) Superintendent of Schools, September 1970. 129 pp. ED 084 178. (MF $.83, HC $7.35; plus $.41 postage.)

The goal of the Marin Social Studies Project was to present a relevant and comprehensive design for American social studies education and to serve as a change agent by providing rational and viable alternatives to present practices. This paper documents the development of this curriculum design and defines the purpose of teaching and the nature of students and learning. A model which educators can use to identify general objectives necessary for a humane survival social studies curriculum is presented, and each prerequisite for a curriculum based on education for survival in a civilized and changing world is discussed. Emphasis is placed on how the interdependent disciplines of the social studies can best function to develop self-actualizing learners and to encourage rational decision making about human behavior and social interactions.

Knox, Gary A., and Richard Togni. "Social Studies Curriculum for Humane Survival: The Salem, Oregon, Model." *Social Studies Review* 14, no. 4 (Spring 1975), pp. 41-44.

The purpose of this article is to present a social studies curriculum designed to help learners become national decision makers with regard to human behavior and social interaction. A seven-point model for curricular/instructional revision is described.

Pecoraro, Andrew Adrian. "The Installation of a Modern Social Studies Program in Grades 4-6 in the West Islip Public Schools." Doctoral dissertation, Nova University, 1975. 232 pp. ED 192 659. (MF $.83, HC $12.71; plus $.63 postage.)

An eclectic social studies model for grades 4-6 is described in this practicum report of a project developed for the West Islip, New York, public schools and implemented there in 1975. Extensive documentation in the form of tables, appendices, and a bibliography is included in the document.

Pratt, Robert B. *Perspectives: A Social Studies Handbook for Secondary Teachers, 7-12*. Des Moines: Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, 1974. 466 pp. ED 117 028. (MF $.83, HC $20.75; plus $.96 postage.)

Part of a continuing process of curriculum reform in social studies in Iowa, this document presents teachers with background and information to assist them in the reform, innovation, and evaluation of their own social studies programs. The materials are geared toward the appreciation and eventual implementation of new social studies techniques. The document examines five areas of the process which can be implemented individually or through inservice programs.

Program Improvement for Social Studies Education in Wisconsin. Madison, Wisc.: Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, State Social Studies Curriculum Study Committee, 1977. 70 pp. ED 137 174. (MF $.83, HC $3.50; plus $.30 postage.)

This booklet was written to help educators review, develop, and improve fundamental components of K-12 social studies programs. It was specifically designed as a planning and implementation guide for social studies in Wisconsin. Ways are suggested in which educators can define the purpose of their social studies programs and decide how to balance skill and subject-matter components. A matrix is provided on which skills and grade-level presentation can be outlined. A historical section traces social studies curriculum development from the 17th century through the "new social studies" to such current concerns as relevance to student needs. The nature of an ideal social studies program is also discussed, and five models of scope and sequence format for both elementary and secondary levels are presented. The final sections of the booklet explain how to implement and evaluate new programs at the local level.

Social Studies for North Dakota Schools. Bismarck, N. Dak.: North Dakota State Department of Public Instruction, 1977. 164 pp. ED 139 723. (MF $.83, plus $.52 postage; HC not available from EDRS.)
The educational philosophy, objectives, and competencies for social studies education in the North Dakota elementary and secondary schools are described in this document. Suggested teaching and evaluation techniques are included, with an emphasis on the inquiry approach. The document also includes suggestions for the implementation of programs in career education, Indian studies, environmental studies, and civil defense education.

Taba, Hilda. *Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1962.
For the serious student of curriculum, this book is a classic in the field of curriculum development. The sections on the process of curriculum planning include strategies for curriculum change which will be particularly helpful to users of this kit.

Twelker, Paul A. *Conducting Planning Exercises.* Salem, Ore.: Instructional Development Corporation, 1971.
This pamphlet, which describes a group-process technique for problem solving and finding alternative solutions, may be especially useful for working with curriculum planning groups that are not yet cohesive.

2. ASSESSING THE CURRENT PROGRAM

Gerald W. Marker

Background Notes

Social studies professionals are often called upon to describe and explain local social studies programs. On some occasions we are even asked to justify the existence of any kind of social studies program. On other occasions we might be asked to explain what students should be learning as a result of the program or what evidence can be presented to indicate that learning is taking place. We need to gather (and make use of) useful and pertinent information that we can share with administrators, boards of education, and the general public. The amount of support our programs receive depends on how well we perform this task.

However, when we are asked to justify and define our programs we often become defensive. We may recognize that we do not agree among ourselves about what we are supposed to be doing. We may discover that we do not have adequate data to support our case. In short, we panic!

The general purpose of this activity is to encourage curriculum planners to look hard at the social studies program now in place and assess its strengths and weaknesses. Making such an assessment is helpful both in explaining a program to others and in providing planners with a valid basis for changing or modifying the program.

Conducting the Activity

Item(s) Provided: Handout 1, "Memo to Social Studies Staff from Superintendent of Schools."

Item(s) You Should Provide: (1) Duplicate copies of the handout, (2) newsprint, marking pens, and masking tape.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) identify divergent opinions about the social studies by citing similarities and differences in viewpoints expressed, (2) state the need for some kind of logically developed social studies program, (3) list ways of demonstrating the value of a program in terms understandable to the public, and (4) explain the strengths and weaknesses of the current program and the available information about outcomes.

Suggested Steps

1. Introduce the activity by explaining that it was designed to assess the school district's current social studies program. You might want to use the "Background Notes" to this section or information from the Introduction. Be as specific as you can about the purpose of the activity.

2. Divide the participants into groups of four, five, or six. If possible, structure the groups so that there is a participant from each level (primary, intermediate, junior high, senior high) in each group.

3. Distribute Handout 1, "Memo from the Superintendent," and allow time for reading. Ask each group to work through the questions in the superintendent's memo in order. One member of each group should record the responses of group members on newsprint. When each group has finished answering the questions, its members should look over their responses and put asterisks beside the ones they think are best. When all groups have finished, post the responses and ask the participants to study all the groups' lists, especially noting similarities and differences.

4. Debrief the activity by asking the questions that follow. Don't attempt to reject or evaluate answers, just accept and record them.

a. What similarities and differences did you note as you read the groups' responses? (Record and post the answers.)

b. What evidence of the success or failure of a program can we demonstrate to the school board or the community?

c. What are some strengths and weaknesses of our current program?

d. How might our current program be improved?

5. Save the results of the debriefing for future reference. Many of the ideas should be useful for future work on curriculum planning.

Additional Resources

(See page 11 for information about how to obtain ERIC documents, which are identified by ED numbers.)

Alleman, Janet E., et al. *A Self-Assessment Inventory for Social Studies to Accompany the National Council for Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines,* rev. ed. St. Paul: Minnesota Department of Education, 1975. 44 pp. ED 139 715. (MF $.83, HC $2.06; plus $.30 postage.) This self-assessment instrument was designed to accompany the National Council for the Social Studies guidelines for new directions in social studies. It is a comprehensive instrument that will help teachers, supervisors, and administrators determine their readiness to embark upon or review their status relative to the "new social studies" curriculum. The instrument consists of nine guidelines. A brief explanation, comments, and a checklist of questions to which educators can respond when assessing their program are provided for each guideline.

Mahood, Wayne. "Defending Social Studies: An Exercise in Futility?" *Social Science Record* 13, no. 3 (Spring 1976), pp. 18-21. The author argues that if social studies belong in the curriculum, it is because of the applicability of the social sciences to the study of the social world--discovering more about the interactions between people and events, people and the physical environment, and people and people. A brief history of social studies education is included in the article.

Massey, D.L. "Four Models of Man--Four Views of Social Studies." *History and Social Science Teacher* 12, no. 3 (Spring 1977), pp. 169-70. This article presents a 28-item checklist to help teachers examine their philosophies about the goals and instructional content of social studies. Scoring information is included.

Skeel, Dorothy J. "Why Teach Social Studies?" *Social Science Record* 13, no. 3 (Spring 1976), pp. 24-25.

The author illustrates reasons for teaching social studies by describing scenarios about elementary and secondary students that might occur on any given day anywhere in the United States. The scenarios involve the use of decision-making skills, map skills, critical reading, and knowledge of how government works.

Workshop Packet for Educational Goals and Objectives: A Model Program for Community and Professional Involvement. Bloomington, Ind.: Phi Delta Kappa, 1972.

This is a workshop packet for use by school districts in identifying community-ranked educational goals and teacher-developed objectives. Community members, professional staff, and students are involved in (1) ranking educational goals in order of importance, (2) assessing how well current educational programs are meeting these goals, and (3) development of program-level performance objectives by the professional staff to meet the priority-ranked goals.

Handout 1

MEMO TO SOCIAL STUDIES STAFF FROM SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

TO: Social studies staff

FROM: Superintendent of Schools

DATE: November 15, 1977

SUBJECT: Departmental reports to the board and community

The school board at its last meeting formally established a policy of requiring an annual report to the public from each department. These reports will focus on the K-12 program goals, instructional plans for meeting the goals, and evaluating and reporting student progress.

The social studies department was chosen by the board to make the first report at the board meeting next month. Please prepare a written response to these specific questions:

1. Given the increasingly crowded curriculum, what justification can you give for the inclusion of social studies in the curriculum?
2. What are the students expected to learn as a result of social studies instruction?
3. What evidence do you have that indicates what students are learning as a result of social studies instruction?
4. What information can you make available to the school board and the administration in support of continuing or expanding the social studies program?

3. DECIDING ON A RATIONALE

Craig Kissock

Background Notes

A rationale is a series of statements about why people are doing what they are doing. A rationale for a school curriculum includes certain assumptions about students. In the social studies, it should include a philosophical statement about the nature of society--past, present, and future. Finally, a social studies rationale needs to include a statement about how curriculum planners view the nature of the social studies discipline(s).

In informal situations, teachers often discuss why they are doing what they are doing. Some teachers have had the opportunity to develop formal statements about their social studies programs which have become part of district curriculum plans. For those who have not, this activity is designed to help develop such a rationale.

It is important to note that the process of developing a rationale can be simple, as it is in this exercise, or extremely complex. Curriculum planners may want to use additional resources and activities in developing a social studies program rationale. We hope that this activity will assist them in getting the process started.

Conducting the Activity

Item(s) Provided: (1) Handout 2, "Teacher Statements About Important Functions for the Social Studies," (2) Handout 3, "Small Group Ranking of Teacher Statements."

Item(s) You Should Provide: Duplicate copies of the handouts.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) articulate their individual views about the social studies, (2) identify areas of agreement and disagreement about a social studies rationale, and (3) begin developing a social studies rationale statement.

The usefulness of this activity can be enhanced by asking a group of parents to do the same ratings that teachers are asked to do. Parent participation at this stage of the planning process can provide useful information to the planning group as well as an important basis for future involvement.

Suggested Steps

1. If the workshop on rationale design is scheduled early in the planning process, you might begin by explaining that it was intended merely to *initiate* the work of rationale development, and that further work on the rationale will take place after objectives and content have been selected. Since not all the steps described in this activity can be completed in one half-day workshop, you might want to schedule a follow-up session or appoint a small working group to perform the final tasks.

Here is a suggested introductory statement: "A social studies rationale reflects the 'why' of the social studies program. A rationale includes statements about the nature of our students, our views of society, and our views of the social studies. Our rationale forms the philosophical underpinning of our social studies program. It serves as a guide to the development of broad program goals, student learning outcomes, and content. It is also a guide to the way we work with students in the classroom. Our rationale can be used to help explain to the public the nature of our program. This activity is designed to help us sort out our individual positions; it will also help us know where we, as a group, agree and disagree. After participating in this activity, we should be able to develop a rationale statement that all of us can live with and support."

2. Distribute Handout 2, "Teacher Statements About Important Functions for the Social Studies." Ask the participants to read the nine statements carefully. After they have read all the statements they should fill in the table in the handout, indicating which statement comes closest to what they believe, which is the next closest, and so forth.

3. After all the participants have finished, small groups of not more than five people should be formed. Give each group a copy of Handout 3, "Small Group Ranking of Teacher Statements," and ask group members to report their individual rankings. A total score should then be determined for each statement.

4. After totals for all the statements have been determined, each small group can begin to see where its members agree and disagree. Suggest that each group first discuss the statements that have the lowest totals (the most favored) in the ranking and list on the handout sheet those areas in which there is substantial group agreement. Following this, each group should examine the statements that have the highest totals (the

least favored) in its ranking and list areas in which there is substantial disagreement.

5. After the group rankings have been analyzed and areas of agreement and disagreement have been identified, each small group should use the handout to compose statements on which they agree. Each group should write as many statements as it can under each of three categories: (1) assumptions about students, (2) views about the nature of society, and (3) views about the social studies.

6. Use the following procedure to complete the rationale:

a. Appoint a small working group of two or three people to draft a rationale based on inputs from the small groups.

b. After the draft rationale is prepared, it should be critiqued by all the participants in the rationale planning workshop group. Two or three critiques may be necessary before all the planners are satisfied with the rationale.

c. After the planning group has agreed on a rationale, give it to other individuals and groups for further written comments. These reviewers might include central office administrators, building principals, other teachers, board members, and lay persons. Be sure to set a deadline for receipt of the critiques and to explain how and why the rationale was developed and what will be done with the critiques.

d. Once the critiques are received, a new draft of the rationale should be prepared and submitted to the appropriate approval groups (e.g., administrative cabinet, school board). More than one round of revisions and critiques may be necessary before a draft results that is acceptable to everyone concerned.

Additional Resources

(See page 11 for information about how to obtain ERIC documents, which are identified by ED numbers.)

Anthony, Robert B. "Rationale for an Interdisciplinary Approach in the Social Studies." *Social Studies* 65, no. 4 (April 1974), pp. 150-51.
The author of this article argues that an interdisciplinary approach reveals social reality as a totality and allows and promotes intelligent change in the construction and implementation of curriculum.

Barr, Robert D., James L. Barth, and S. Samuel Shermis. *Defining the Social Studies*. Bulletin 51. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977.
This book focuses on a discussion of why social studies is included in the school curriculum and why effective social studies instruction is so important today. After presenting a brief history of social studies education, the authors describe three social studies traditions--citizenship transmission, social science, and reflective inquiry--and compare their purposes, methods, and content.

Brubaker, Dale L., et al. "A Conceptual Framework for Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction." *Social Education* 41, no. 3 (March 1977), pp. 201-205.
This article discusses the different goal orientations of educators and social scientists with the goal of stimulating thinking and acting in the realm of social studies curriculum and instruction.

Dodds, Betty. "The Need for Social Studies." *Social Science Record* 13, no. 3 (Spring 1976), pp. 25-26.
The author argues that social studies education provides students with the skills needed to deal with economic, political, and social realities.

Gross, Richard E. "Social Studies Imperatives in the Next Decade." *Social Studies Review* 14, no. 4 (Spring 1975), pp. 16-23.

Gross suggests that socio-civic elements basic to society should form the basis of a social studies program emphasizing process skills, human understanding, cultural goals, population problems, environmental protection, peace education, political responsiveness, interdisciplinary approaches, futures, and globalism.

Hartoonian, Michael. "The Ethics of Our Profession: The Student and Schooling." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, November 4-7, 1976. 13 pp. ED 132 083. (MF $.83, HC $1.67; plus $.30 postage.)
Student rights and responsibilities vis-à-vis knowledge (methods of study) and the purpose of schooling are dealt with in this study of social studies rationales. At the core of this paper is the ethical issue of whether schools should prepare students directly for society. The author believes that educators should consider the ethical implications of educational developments that stress social needs and utilitarian skills at the expense of student rights.

Lybarger, Michael. "Origins and Rationale of the Early Social Studies Curriculum: 1900-1916." Draft of paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, Atlanta, November 25-29, 1975. 32 pp. ED 121 646. (MF $.83, HC $2.06; plus $.30 postage.)
This paper presents an historical summary of rationales for social studies curriculum development from 1900 to 1916. The author's main purpose was to trace the educational thinking that resulted in the decision to present the social studies in a societal context. The paper discusses specific civics and social studies curricula, reports from the Social Studies Committee of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, and early social studies textbooks. The author recommends that school personnel make a more concentrated effort to consider their work in a historical context.

Nelson, Jack L. "On the Importance of Social Studies in the Schools." *Social Science Record* 13, no. 3 (Spring 1976) pp. 16-17.
The author shows how criticism provides the basis for regressive, as well as progressive, decisions in education and other areas.

He emphasizes that social studies is an important part of the curriculum because it offers the potential for producing citizens who can use the tools of critical thinking.

Popkewitz, Thomas S. "The Latent Values of the Discipline-Centered Curriculum." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 5, no. 1 (April 1977), pp. 41-60.
Popkewitz examines three curriculum projects in order to evaluate the organization of social studies curricula around the social science disciplines. He concludes that many curricula stifle students' creative powers by stressing logical tidiness at the expense of the social, personal, and communal processes that characterize social science.

Sharefkin, Belle D. "Putting It Together in Social Studies: Interrelationships in Modern Life." *Social Science Record* 23, no. 1 (Fall 1975), pp. 39-40.
The author of this article believes that the social studies curriculum can promote an understanding of the phenomenon of interrelationships by encouraging students to apply basic concepts to current problems. Seven hypothetical interrelationships are suggested as classroom topics.

Shaver, James P., ed. *Building Rationales for Citizenship Education.* Bulletin 52. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977.
Although its primary focus is on the need to formulate appropriate rationale statements, this book offers excellent explanations of the elements of a rationale and of the process of examining assumptions related to formal citizen education efforts.

Tucker, Jan L. "Emerging Paradigms in the New Social Studies." *Social Science Record* 9, no. 3 (Spring 1972), pp. 10-19.
The author identifies four paradigms developed from process and content choices: (1) scientific, discipline-centered, (2) humanistic, discipline-centered, (3) scientific, practical-problem-centered, and (4) humanistic, practical-problem-centered. Each is examined in the light of its logical implications for the social studies teacher.

Handout 2

TEACHER STATEMENTS ABOUT IMPORTANT FUNCTIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A. "Well, as I see it, the main task of education in a democratic society is to produce citizens who are neither apathetic nor cynical. That is, who feel that problems can be solved, that wrongs can be righted, and, most of all, that they personally can participate and influence the direction of the society. The implication for the social studies is that somewhere in the curriculum we have to show them how to participate, convince them that their efforts can really count. This can't be phony. We have to demonstrate, maybe through descriptions of real people and cases, that individuals and organizations can exert power in ways that improve society."

B. "Maybe it's just the kind of students we have, but I'd be happy if we could get them interested in learning anything at all about that big world out there. Either they think they know it all or they couldn't care less. The job of the social studies teacher is to get them interested, intrigued, even worried--anything to get their brains working. This ought to be easier in the social studies than in other subjects because we deal with real human situations rather than with abstractions."

C. "In a democracy, the individual's relationship to the state is of great concern. In a modern industrial democracy, large corporations have almost as much power to influence lives and public policy as government. The common man facing these two great powers doesn't have much of a chance unless he is alerted to his rights and to how easily and quietly they can be taken away. What we need to be teaching is not a course in "government" but a course in "power." How to keep any group or interest from accumulating too much of it. How to know who has it. How to organize in order to obtain a fair share of it."

D. "Students are still trying to figure out who they are, who they want to be, and who their peers want them to be. Identity is their key preoccupation, and thus the source of a lot of internal conflict. The trouble with a big complex society like ours is that it offers too many possible identities--and too many superficial ones. In earlier, simpler times a person was a member of a tightly knit community and a tightly knit family, and he damn well knew who he was. Probably the most important job for the social studies is to go a little easier on the academic learning and put our efforts into helping kids over the rough ground of growing up. This might mean (among other things) giving them some criteria for deciding which identities have some depth to them and which are tinsel."

E. "Let's face it, the number one problem facing this nation is discrimination, whether it is based on sex, race, ethnicity, social class or age. There is certainly no more important business for the social studies than to knock down the myths and rationalizations that support discrimination, to make sure that every graduate of the public schools understands why our society honors equality and human dignity and why the realization of these values is not yet complete. This means history (studying the long history of the fight for political and social rights) and social science (examining the psychology and sociology of prejudice)."

F. "If you're teaching college-bound students, the primary task of the social studies is crystal clear: teach the academic courses that will get your students into college. If you don't, your students will be anxious, their parents will be furious, and you will be (come contract time) superfluous. School is a mobility machine, and the main function of the social studies, like that of every other subject, is to do the conventional academic thing. Up the social ladder!"

G. "Survival is what we need to teach--survival in an impersonal and competitive urbanized society. Our technology may be sophisticated, but we still have the old problem of how to survive in the jungle. In this case, how to cope with bureaucrats and employers and police and landlords. How to cope with shoddy products, crowded living, aggressiveness. And not least--how to cope with loneliness. Surely the thing for which the social studies should be most accountable is preparing the new generation to find more satisfying solutions than the distractions of the boob tube and the copouts of drugs and alcohol."

H. "The real problem is change. The guy who wrote *Future Shock* really put his finger on it. Everything we teach in social studies should be focused on the central idea of change, how specific changes came about, how and why they were resisted, what their long-range consequences were, how people adapted to them. And we have to help students apply what is learned by historical analysis to the accelerating changes of our own times, because change isn't always sensed until it turns into an avalanche--and then it's too late."

I. "The trouble with the social studies is that we've been looking over our shoulders, studying the past. What we should be doing is building the best radar we can for looking into the future. The dangers and problems lie ahead, not behind. The most responsible role for social studies teachers is to serve as an early warning system, a kind of DEW line. Students need to be alerted to developments that are still over the horizon but which will strongly affect their lives. They need to begin thinking about the future in a disciplined way."

Individual Ranking of Statements

Instructions: Assign a number from 1 to 9 to each statement presented in this handout. Put a "1" next to the letter of the statement that sounds most like what you believe, a "9" next to the statement that sounds least like what you believe, and rank the other statements accordingly.

A_____ B_____ C_____ D_____ E_____ F_____ G_____ H_____ I_____

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Handout 3

SMALL GROUP RANKING OF TEACHER STATEMENTS

Statement	Individual Rankings					Total
A						
B						
C						
D						
E						
F						
G						
H						
I						

Areas of Agreement

Areas of Disagreement

Statements We Can Agree Upon

Assumptions About Students:

Views on the Nature of Society:

Views on the Social Studies:

4. DETERMINING THE SCOPE OF THE PROGRAM

Roger Wangen and Craig Kissock

Background Notes

If you were a math teacher and you were asked what mathematics consists of, it would not be difficult for you to explain the subject or the logical sequence in which it is taught. You would probably know that children are taught first to count and then to recognize numbers. Next they are shown a picture of two apples and asked to match the picture with the number 2. Next they learn to add, then to subtract, and so forth.

But social studies teachers have no such structure to fall back on. Instead, there are a variety of theories about what social studies should be--some of them widely accepted, some considered faddish, some considered irrelevant to the needs of students. It is important that a planning committee or group come to some agreement on the scope of what should be encompassed in social studies.

The activity described in this section is designed to help planners identify, clarify, and seek agreement on what social studies is and why it is important for all students. Clearly, the scope of the program will significantly influence both objectives and content.

Conducting the Activity

Item(s) Provided: (1) Handout 4, "Rules of Brainstorming," (2) Handouts 5, 6, and 7, "Brainstorm Tasks."

Item(s) You Should Provide: (1) Duplicate copies of the handouts, (2) newsprint, marking pens, and masking tape *or* blackboard and chalk.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) identify and categorize the large number of ideas, concepts, and theories subsumed under the social studies, (2) suggest alternative ways of organizing these ideas, (3) prepare a rough outline of what the group considers important to include in a social studies program, (4) make a commitment to developing a set of student-centered objectives that will enable them to plan a social studies program.

Suggested Steps

1. Depending on the size of the group, organize the participants into small groups of four, five, or six. If the group is very small (six or fewer), you may want to conduct this activity in several sessions and have the entire group do each brainstorming task.

2. Introduce the activity. You may want to use the background notes or develop an introduction of your own. Let the group know that the purpose of the activity is to come to some agreement on the scope of the social studies program. (What should it include? What should be left out? What should be its main focus--the student, the social sciences, or the community?) Explain that this activity will consider three areas that might receive major emphasis in social studies program: (a) problems of humankind, (b) social science concepts, and (c) needs of students. Participants will be asked to decide what is important about each of these three areas.

3. Distribute Handout 4, "Rules of Brainstorming," and one brainstorm task handout to each group. (If you have more than three groups, some groups will have the same task. If you have only one group, ask the entire group to brainstorm one task at a time until all three have been completed.) Ask one person in each group to record the group's responses on a sheet of newsprint. The rules of brainstorming should be followed.

4. When all the groups have finished brainstorming, ask them to review their lists and (a) draw lines through any items that should not be included in a social studies program, (b) circle all items that should be given special emphasis, and (c) put a box around all items that should be included but not emphasized.

5. When all the small groups have completed the task and the responses are on view, ask a member of each group to review and summarize that group's brainstorming results. Frequently, this report will include differences of opinion that emerged when items were crossed out, circled, or boxed. Be sure to ask if anyone else in the group has any comments.

6. Ask the entire planning group for suggestions about items that might be added to any of the lists. Remind the group that these lists should reflect the total scope of a social studies program.

Because of the global nature of the questions in the brainstorm tasks, suggestions for specific content--wars, key countries, names of important people, important events--may be missing. If participants want to add such items, post them; however, they will soon see that they could add specific items for days without exhausting the possibilities. Remind the group, if necessary, that a statement of scope for social studies must by definition be broad and general. Specific objectives and content can be determined once the group has reached agreement on the scope of the program.

Be sure to tell the participants that the next step will be the selection of objectives. The brainstorm lists should be posted at each subsequent session so that the participants can keep in mind what they felt was important in a social studies program, what should be emphasized, and what should not receive special emphasis. These lists will become the basis for future decision making about objectives and content.

Additional Resources

(See page 11 for information about how to obtain ERIC documents, which are identified by ED numbers.)

Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1976.
This document defines multiethnic education and suggests a rationale for including multiethnic education as a basic part of the curriculum. A program evaluation checklist is provided.

Gross, Richard E. "Social Studies Essentials in an Era of Doubt." *Social Studies* 66, no. 3 (May/June 1975), pp. 99-105.
The author identifies the fundamental areas of emphasis for a social studies program which deal with the most important elements in the maintenance of society.

Lengel, James G., and H. Donn McCafferty. *Guide to Concept Development in the Social Studies*. Montpelier, Vt.: Vermont State Department of Education, 1975. 113 pp. ED 123 170. (MF $.83, HC $6.01; plus $.41 postage.)
This guide lists and defines concepts from seven social science disciplines and presents strategies for concept teaching in the social sciences at the elementary and secondary levels. The introductory section defines the term *concept* and outlines a general social studies curriculum structure that organizes concepts, skills, and content into a system for program planning. The guide concludes with a brief outline of subjects to be included in future volumes.

Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971.
This volume contains a basic rationale and guidelines for a social studies program along with explanations of each.

The following guidelines were identified: (1) the social studies program should be directly related to the concerns of students; (2) the program should deal with the real social world; (3) the program should draw from currently valid knowledge that is representative of man's experience, culture, and beliefs; (4) objectives should be thoughtfully selected and clearly stated in such form as to furnish direction to the program; (5) learning activities should engage the student directly and actively in the learning process; (6) strategies of instruction and learning activities should rely on a broad range of learning resources; (7) the social studies program must help the student organize the totality of his experience into some meaningful whole; (8) evaluation should be useful, systematic, comprehensive, and valid for the objectives of the program; and (9) social studies education should receive vigorous support as a vital and responsible part of the school program. A program evaluation checklist is included.

The Use of Social Studies Concepts in Curriculum Development, rev. ed. Harrisburg, Pa.: Pennsylvania State Department of Education, 1975. 30 pp. ED 118 473. (MF $.83, HC $2.06; plus $.30 postage.) This publication contains a conceptual framework for social studies curriculum development. The social science disciplines—anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, psychology, and sociology--were used as resources for providing the key concepts, insights, and methods of inquiry that would enable students to gain a better understanding of present and past societies and cultures. This framework, which comprises the major portion of the document, provides the following information for each discipline: (1) the major cognitive concepts, (2) a list of generalizations or ideas around which the concepts can be organized, (3) an example illustrating the development of a single concept into performance objectives, and (4) suggested teaching strategies. The document also contains a brief list of affective concepts and a list of social studies processes.

What Every Child Should Know . . . Social Studies: Course of Study, Criteria for Textbook Selection. Phoenix: Arizona State Department of Education, 1974. 67 pp. ED 141 211. (MF $.83, HC $3.50; plus $.30 postage.)

This state curriculum guide outlines the knowledge objectives for elementary and secondary social studies in Arizona. The purposes of the guide were (1) to present minimum content for courses of study in geography, economics, world history, and government and (2) to provide educational-content criteria for selection of state-adopted textbooks. The guide is divided into sections by subject area. Each section contains information about specific subject scope, definition of the discipline, major goals and subgoals, facts, principles, skills, and concepts. The major goals and subgoals are marked to indicate whether major emphasis should be stressed at the elementary or secondary level.

Handout 4

RULES OF BRAINSTORMING

1. Saying anything that comes to mind is okay.
2. Discussing other people's statements is not okay.
3. Evaluating or criticizing other people's statements is not okay.
4. Repeating someone else's idea is okay.
5. "Piggybacking" on someone else's idea is okay--that is, it is permissible to add to or slightly change someone else's suggestion.
6. Silence is okay.
7. Even if you think you have finished, keep on going for a while.

Handout 5

BRAINSTORM TASK 1: PROBLEMS OF HUMANKIND

Identify, by brainstorming, the most important problems facing humankind in today's global society; e.g., racism, war, poverty, inflation, energy, the environment.

Follow the rules of brainstorming. When your list is complete, proceed with the following steps:

1. Draw a line through any items that should *not* be in this district's social studies program.
2. Circle all items that should be emphasized.
3. Put a box around all items that should be included but not emphasized.

Handout 6

BRAINSTORM TASK 2: SOCIAL SCIENCE CONCEPTS

Identify, by brainstorming, the "big" ideas or social science/ social studies concepts that may be used as the basis of a social studies program. (A *concept* is an abstract or general idea about specific instances that have common properties or an identifiable relationship to one another. A useful concept is broad enough to transcend mere description but narrow enough to be meaningful. Some examples of useful concepts are *family*, *interdependence*, *culture change*, *scarcity*, *socialization*, *power*, and *prejudice*.)

Follow the rules of brainstorming. When your list is complete, proceed with the following steps:

1. Draw a line through any items that should *not* be in this district's social studies program.
2. Circle all items that should be emphasized.
3. Put a box around all items that should be included but not emphasized.

Handout 7

BRAINSTORM TASK 3: NEEDS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES STUDENT

Identify, by brainstorming, the competencies (knowledge, skills, attitudes) that *all* citizens need in order to cope with the problems facing society today.

Follow the rules of brainstorming. When your list is complete, proceed with the following steps:

1. Draw a line through any items that should *not* be in this district's social studies program.
2. Circle all items that should be emphasized.
3. Put a box around all items that should be included but not emphasized.

5. SELECTING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Roger Wangen

Background Notes

After completing the activities in Section 4, the curriculum planning group will have determined the scope of the new social studies program. It is likely that group members will now be experiencing some frustration about the sheer extent of the scope they have defined. Such frustration can be beneficial if it leads to efforts to establish a pattern of organization that will make the program more systematic.

Student-centered objectives serve as one focus for organizing a social studies program. Curriculum committees often need help in identifying, clarifying, and coming to agreement on these objectives. There are a number of ways to accomplish this. Probably the least desirable way is sometimes referred to as "creative writing"--that is, starting from scratch to develop specific student learning objectives for each grade level. Such a procedure is very time consuming, and the product is usually not worth the effort.

A more useful way of deciding what we want students to learn is to examine lists of objectives from a variety of sources. The planning group then identifies, clarifies, and reaches a consensus about which learning objectives best meet the needs identified by the group. A list of sources of learning objectives is provided in Appendix C of this guide.

It is convenient to think about objectives in terms of two levels of specificity. The broader level might be called *program goals* and the narrower level *specific objectives* or *student-centered objectives*.

Program goals are general statements that are closely related to the program rationale. These broad goals establish a direction for the specific objectives. A typical program goal might be "to develop students' understanding of the relationships between human beings and their social and physical environments in the past and present."

Specific objectives clearly define the expectations we have for students. If stated properly, these objectives lend themselves to measurement and thus form a sound base for an accountable program. One specific objective that could be derived from the program goal stated above might be phrased this way: "Students will be able to identify some ways, customs, and inventions that have been transmitted from one people to another."

Even-more-specific lesson objectives can be developed which are appropriate for students at various grade levels. However, this task might better be left to individual teachers. A district planning committee that tries to define objectives for individual lessons is likely to encounter a lot of resistance from teachers. Moreover, trying to identify lesson objectives for each grade level probably would result in an unmanageable burden of paperwork.

However, it is both appropriate and desirable for a planning committee to determine at which level a program goal or specific objective should be introduced. The group should also decide at what level reinforcement and mastery of the objective will be required. Once these decisions have been made, the group can recommend testing procedures for measuring how well students have attained the objective.

The activity in this section is designed to help a program planning committee accomplish several tasks, ranging from choosing criteria for selecting objectives to deciding what new materials and training procedures will be required to implement the objectives finally selected by the committee. Not all these tasks can be performed in a half-day workshop, and some--in particular, the tallying and summarizing of the participants' individual lists of objectives--probably will have to be performed by a small group working separately. You may want to schedule two sessions--one to choose criteria and develop individual lists of objectives, the other to review the summarized data, make necessary additions or changes, and plan for implementation. If you decide to conduct only one session, we recommend that you use it for the activities suggested in step 1 below.

Conducting the Activity

Item(s) Provided: (1) Handout 8, "Criteria for Selecting Objectives," (2) Handout 9, "Selected NAEP/MAEP Objectives."

Item(s) You Should Provide: (1) Duplicate copies of the handouts, (2) brainstorming lists from the activity in Section 4, (3) newsprint, marking pens, masking tape.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) identify program goals and specific objectives that can be used as the basis for their social studies program and (2) develop plans for implementing these goals and objectives.

Suggested Steps

1. Initial workshop session.

a. Explain the purpose of the session. If the planning group has completed the activity in Section 4, you might start out by saying: "You have identified and defined the scope of a social studies program appropriate for this school district. You have listed the most important problems facing humankind, the "big" ideas in social studies, and the competencies all citizens need in order to cope with the problems that face society today. You should now have some ideas about how program goals can be stated. Today we will attempt to reach agreement as a group on what criteria should be used to select student-centered specific objectives, and we will make a lot of progress toward actually choosing those objectives." Remind the group that the brainstorming lists compiled during the activity in Section 4 should be used as guidelines.

b. Distribute copies of Handout 8, "Criteria for Selecting Objectives." The participants may want to modify this list or develop their own list. When the group reaches a consensus about criteria, post the list where everyone can see it. Explain that the next part of the activity will focus on the fourth and eighth criteria in the list on the handout.

c. Distribute copies of Handout 9, "Selected NAEP/MAEP Objectives."* Ask the participants to work through the handouts individually, using them to record their opinions about how essential each objective is and when it should be inserted into the curriculum. If the scope of the program has already been defined, remind the group that it should be used as a guide. For example, if the group has identified "the environment" as one of the major problems facing humankind, point out that relevant objectives are on pages 2 and 3 of the handout. Or perhaps the group has singled out "problem-solving skills" as one of the primary needs of students; objectives that fit those needs can be found on pages 6 and 7 of the handout. At least an hour and a half should be allotted for completing this task.

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*In developing this activity, we have combined the goals and objectives suggested by the National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) and the Minnesota Assessment for Educational Progress (MAEP).

d. When all the participants have finished filling out their handout sheets, explain how the remaining steps in this activity will be conducted. At this time you may want to appoint a small working committee to process the data from the individual handouts.

2. Compiling and organizing workshop data.

a. Tally and summarize the data gathered during the workshop session. If a follow-up session has been scheduled, the tallying committee should record the results on large sheets of newsprint. Identify and make a separate list of any objectives on which there appears to be substantial disagreement.

b. Review the statements developed about the scope of the program and the list of criteria identified by the workshop group and identify areas of incongruency. (Have objectives been identified that do not fit into the scope? Are there objectives for all the important content areas defined by the group? Should decisions about scope be reconsidered in the light of the objectives identified by the group?) Make a list of apparent inconsistencies that need to be resolved.

3. Concluding the activity.

a. If a second session has been scheduled, the first task of the participants should be to review the summary list of objectives, resolve whatever incongruencies have been identified by the tallying group, and make whatever additional changes seem necessary or desirable. Post the revised summary list where everyone can see it.

b. Ask the participants or the core planning committee to develop a procedure for communicating and obtaining final approval of the objectives identified by the group. (Who should be involved in the approval process? How should the objectives be communicated and explained to others in the school district and to the community as a whole?)

c. Establish a time line for implementing the objectives. At this point the planning group should be giving some thought to how and when outcomes will be measured. (See Section 8 of this guide for information about designing testing and evaluation procedures.)

d. Identify whatever new materials and inservice training will be necessary to implement the objectives, and decide who will be responsible for following through in these areas. (Section 7 of this guide presents activities and procedures for selecting curriculum materials.)

Additional Resources

(See page 11 for information about how to obtain ERIC documents, which are identified by ED numbers.)

Bloom, Benjamin S., ed. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain*. New York: David McKay Co., 1956.
The authors have developed a taxonomy of objectives and given examples of each level of the taxonomy. The levels identified are knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Garvey, James F., and Richard H. Brautigan. *Writing Objectives for Improved Instruction*. North Hollywood, Calif.: Career Aids, Inc., 1972.
This self-instructional program uses filmstrips and audiotapes to teach principals and teachers how to develop instructional objectives.

Krathwohl, David R., et al. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook 2: Affective Domain*. New York: David McKay Co., 1964.
This taxonomy of affective objectives is organized into five levels: receiving (attending), responding, valuing, organization, and characterization of a value or value complex.

Lewenstein, Morris. "In Defense of Behavioral Objectives." *Social Education* 40, no. 7 (November/December 1976), pp. 460, 564-65.
Lewenstein presents arguments in favor of developing behavioral objectives for the social studies and discusses criticisms of the behavioral objective approach to curriculum development. He concludes that it is impossible to determine the success of a program unless it contains specific objectives.

Minimal Performance Objectives for Social Studies Education in Michigan. Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State Department of Education, 1974. 182 pp. ED 137 205. (MF $.83, plus $.52 postage; HC not available from EDRS.)
This booklet contains a set of elementary and secondary social studies performance objectives for the state of Michigan. Because the objectives stress social studies skills and concepts that are relatively

content free, schools can vary their curricula to suit local needs and preferences. The booklet presents objectives for three levels: early elementary, later elementary, and secondary. Sample test items are included for clarification.

Skill Development in the K-6 Social Studies Program. Bulletin 5193. Madison, Wisc.: Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, 1975. 151 pp. ED 125 973. (MF $.83; HC $8.69; plus $.52 postage.) This curriculum guide focuses on the development of skills, processes, and competencies appropriate for a K-6 social studies program. Objectives and activities for five sets of skills are provided for each of the separate grade levels.

Handout 8

CRITERIA FOR SELECTING OBJECTIVES

1. The focus of the objective should be on student learning.
2. A measurable behavior should be identified.
3. The objective should be directly related to a broad goal.
4. The objective should fit within the scope defined for a social studies program.
5. The objective should be consistent with the program rationale.
6. The objective should be useful to teachers in developing specific instructional objectives.
7. The objective should allow flexibility for instructional procedures and materials.
8. The objective should be appropriate for students at the grade level where it will be introduced.
9. The objective should be relevant to the needs of students at this level.
10. The objective should be identifiable as cognitive, affective, or process.

Handout 9

SELECTED NAEP/MAEP OBJECTIVES

Instructions: Review each objective and indicate how essential you think it is by circling the appropriate letters in the right-hand column. If you think it is essential, indicate the grade level where you think it should be introduced in the far-right-hand column. Note: Roman numerals introduce program goals and arabic numerals denote specific objectives.

SECTION I: COGNITIVE OBJECTIVES I. Develops an understanding of the relationships between human beings and their social and physical environments in the past and present; develops an understanding of the origins, interrelationships, and effects of beliefs, values, and behavior patterns; and applies this knowledge to new situations and data.	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
A. Acquires knowledge about social organization.		
1. Identifies some groups that human beings form (e.g., family, peer, community, national, international) and indicates some reasons why and how these groups form.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Identifies some preferences among people that lead to group identification (e.g., common interest, common heritage).	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Describes some of the functions of groups such as family, peer, community, national and international groups in various cultures and indicates how and why these functions change; gives explanations of the consequences of these changing functions.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Describes some of the functions of basic institutions (e.g., educational, legal, religious, financial, health care, business) in various cultures and indicates how and why these functions change.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
5. Identifies "cultural universals" such as shelter, food, communications, socialization, family oranization and religion; recognizes that these "cultural universals" take different forms in various cultures and that these forms change over time.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
6. Describes some of the basic patterns of human settlement (e.g., nomadic, village, city) and describes similarities and differences between these patterns.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
B. Acquires knowledge about the relationships between human beings and social environments; understands some of the effects of these relationships; and makes value judgments about the consequences of these relationships.		
1. Identifies and describes some influences groups (e.g., family, peer) and institutions have on individual behavior and attitudes (e.g., choice of clothes, food, language, recreation, attitudes toward other people and institutions, and cultural perceptions) and compares these influences with those in other cultures.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Identifies individuals and groups whose efforts, ideas, or inventions have significantly affected the lives of other human beings and describes their contributions.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Describes major changes that have occurred in the way people live or work (including one's own life) and explains what ideas and inventions helped bring about these changes.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Describes some ways ideas, customs, and inventions have been transmitted and spread from one people to another.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
5. Describes some innovations (ideas or inventions) and explains how these innovations have affected social life.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
6. Describes some factors that might promote or inhibit change, and generalizes about their effect on society.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
7. Describes and evaluates some of the effects of population density and growth on the way people live.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
8. Explains and evaluates some ways human resources have been allocated, utilized and conserved in the community, the nation and in other societies.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
9. Gives examples of some effects on social institutions that may result from contact between cultures.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
10. Explains how various ethnic groups (both within and outside a society) have contributed to the development of a particular culture.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
C. Acquires knowledge about the relationships between human beings and the physical environment, explains some of the effects of these relationships; and makes value judgments about the consequences of these relationships.		
1. Identifies the major features of the physical environment and knows some of the general characteristics of regions and regional patterns in the world.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Describes ways human beings have adapted to or modified their physical environment; explains some reasons for these changes; describes and evaluates the effects of such changes.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
3. Explains and evaluates some effects of technology (e.g., inventions and methods of production) on the relationship between human beings and the physical environment.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Explains and evaluates ways in which natural resources have been allocated, utilized, and conserved in the community, regions, the nation and in other societies.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
D. Acquires knowledge about decision-making processes.		
1. Gives examples of some decisions made at home, in school, in peer groups, or at work, which affect the individual; identifies who makes these decisions and describes how these decisions have affected individual behavior.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Identifies decisions made about the production and distribution of goods in community, state, national and international situations; suggests some reasons for these decisions and indicates possible effects of these decisions.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Identifies some decisions made about services (e.g., protection, health care, transportation) in community, state, national and international situations; suggests some reasons for these decisions and indicates possible effects of these decisions.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Explains the influence of geographic location, life style, advertising, level of income, peer pressure, and governmental action, on consumer decisions; describes and evaluates individual or group actions taken to protect the consumer.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
5. Demonstrates knowledge of the reasons for rules and laws within a society.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
6. Describes some of the reasons why people form governments.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
7. Identifies the structure and function of government within their school and community.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
8. Identifies the rights of the individual as expressed in the United States Constitution and explains the importance of these rights in public and private decision-making.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
9. Explains the formal and informal relationships among the branches of the federal government and analyzes the importance of these relationships in decision-making.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
10. Identifies the changing relationships in the division of power between local, state and national governments, and analyzes some effects these relationships have on the decision-making process.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
11. Identifies specific interests of some of the major economic, social, and political organizations in the United States and describes some influences these groups have on the decision-making process.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
12. Compares, contrasts and evaluates ways individuals or groups can support or effect changes in decisions that have been made.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
13. Identifies situations (e.g., home, school, peer groups, community, national, international) where individual or group participation in decision-making has been affected by lack of opportunity; suggests and evaluates ways of increasing participation.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
14. Identifies and explains factors affecting political decision-making by elected officials.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
15. Identifies some factors (e.g., lack or distortion of data, no clear cause-and-effect relationship, impact of time, conflict of values) that make political and economic decision-making processes difficult and uncertain.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
16. Compares and contrasts decision-making processes of democratic and totalitarian political systems and socialistic and capitalistic economic systems.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
17. Identifies major factors which have contributed to the economic and political development of a particular country; explains how some of these factors have influenced the decision-making process.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
18. Identifies and explains some of the political and economic interactions among nations.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
19. Identifies some systems that various nations have developed to involve the general population in decision-making, and describes how these systems have evolved over time.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
20 Explains how an analysis of the political and economic decision-making processes employed in the past can help in making decisions about the future.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
E. Acquires knowledge about conflict and the impact it has on individual and group relationships, and makes value judgments about these relationships.		
1. Identifies potential sources of conflict in groups (e.g., family, peer, school, community, national and international).	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Identifies specific situations in the community, national and international areas where there is potential or actual conflict; explains some reasons for the conflict; predicts the consequences of the conflict.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
3. Identifies ways people react to conflict in family, peer, school, community, national and international situations, and evaluates those reactions.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Identifies ways conflict has been handled in family, peer, school, community, national, and international situations, and evaluates the methods used in handling such conflicts.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
5. Explains how conflict may affect relationships between individuals and between groups of people.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
6. Gives constructive ways of handling conflict situations.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
F. Expresses awareness of some of the beliefs and values expressed by people and recognizes that the times and places in which people live influence their beliefs, values and behaviors.		
1. Identifies objects, feelings and ideas important to people in different places, and at different times, and explains why some things are valued more in some places and times than in others.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Describes ways people express their feelings and preferences for objects and ideas.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Infers beliefs, values, and life-styles from information about the times and places in which people live.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
G. Demonstrates knowledge of ways beliefs and values are transmitted in various cultures.		
1. Compares and contrasts the ways beliefs and values are transmitted in their society with ways by which beliefs and values are transmitted in another society.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Describes ways beliefs and values are transmitted between cultures.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
H. Acquires knowledge about some of the influences, beliefs and values have on relationships between people.		
1 Gives examples of influences of beliefs and values of members of one's own family or peer group, and explains some of the possible effects of these influences.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2 Compares and contrasts the beliefs and values of two groups of people, and suggests the effects that the similarities and differences in beliefs and values may have on the relationship between these two groups.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Gives examples of differences in beliefs and values that have created a division between two groups of people, identifies alternative ways of dealing with the situation, and explains the consequences of each alternative.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

SECTION II: PROCESS OBJECTIVES II. Develops the competencies to acquire, organize, evaluate and report information for purposes of solving problems and clarifying issues.	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
A. Identifies the central problem in a situation; identifies the major issue in a dispute.		
1. Clarifies vague and ambiguous terminology.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Distinguishes among definitional, value and factual issues in a dispute.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
B. Applies divergent thinking in formulating hypotheses and generalizations capable of being tested.		
C. Identifies and locates sources of information and evaluates the reliability and relevance of these sources.		
1. Identifies and locates sources of information appropriate to the task (e.g., authorities or resource people, books on subject, reference works, maps, magazines, newspapers, fiction, radio, television, interviews, surveys, experiments, statistical data, case studies, systematic observations, personal experiences, artistic representations, fiction.)	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Distinguishes between relevant and irrelevant sources.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Distinguishes between reliable and unreliable sources.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
D. Demonstrates ability to use reliable sources of information.		
1. Uses more than one source to obtain information.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Develops questions appropriate for obtaining information from sources.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Records observations and information obtained from sources.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Identifies points of agreement and disagreement among the sources.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
5. Evaluates the quality of the available information.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
E. Organizes, analyzes, interprets and synthesizes information obtained from various sources.		
1. Identifies central elements in information.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Classifies information.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Distinguishes statements of fact from statements of opinion.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Distinguishes statements of inference from statements of fact.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
5. Identifies stated opinions, biases, and value judgments.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
6. Differentiates between points of view.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
7. Recognizes logical errors.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
8. Recognizes inadequacies or omissions in information.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
9. Makes inferences from data.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
10. Identifies cause and effect relationships.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
11. Recognizes interrelationships among concepts.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
12. Identifies nature of sample.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
13. Identifies stated and unstated assumptions.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
14. Summarizes information.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
F. Uses summarized information to test hypotheses, draw conclusions, offer solutions to problems, clarify issues, or make predictions.		
G. Validates outcome of investigation.		
1. Tests solutions to problem or issue when possible.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Modifies solutions in light of new factors or considerations.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Analyzes trends and modifies predictions when necessary.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
H. Appraises judgments and values that are involved in the choice of a course of action.		
1. Identifies and weighs conflicting values which serve as contradicting criteria for judging courses of action.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Develops a set of criteria for judging proposed courses of action in terms of actual and projected consequences.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Applies the established criteria to actual and projected consequences of a proposed course of action.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Selects and defends a position or course of action consistent with the established criteria.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

SECTION III: AFFECTIVE OBJECTIVES III Examines own beliefs and values, recognizes the relationship between own value structure and own behavior and develops human relations skills and attitudes that enable one to act in the interest of self and others; is developing a positive self-concept.	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
A. Expresses awareness of the characteristics that give one identity.		
1. Identifies a range of individual (personal) characteristics.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Identifies the characteristics of the individuals, groups, institutions or associations, with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Identifies the similarities and differences between one's own characteristics and those of the groups with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
B. Expresses awareness of one's goals (aspirations), the goals of the groups with which one identifies, and correlates those goals.		
1. Identifies one's own goals.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Identifies the goals of the individuals, groups, institutions or associations, with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
C. Expresses awareness of the relative strengths of oneself and the groups with which one identifies; recognizes the societal barriers to full development that may exist; suggests ways of maximizing one's effectiveness.		
1. Identifies one's strengths.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Identifies the strengths of the groups, institutions and associations, with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Identifies the relationship between one's strengths and the strengths of the groups with which one identifies.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Recognizes the societal barriers to full development that may exist.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
5. Suggests ways of maximizing one's effectiveness.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
D. Examines own beliefs and values and the relationship between these and behavior.		
1. Describes and explains own feelings and preferences about people, beliefs and ways of life.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Describes ways one expresses own feelings and preferences about people, beliefs and ways of life.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Identifies and gives reasons for one's own criteria for judgment of beliefs and actions of other people, and for judgment of own beliefs and actions.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4. Demonstrates a growing awareness of responsibility for one's own behavior.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
5. Demonstrates awareness of one's own acts and of how they affect others.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
6. Describes own personal response (action or attitude) to a dilemma situation and the possible consequences of the response to self and others.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
7. Identifies own beliefs and values, and those of others, in a dilemma situation involving members of family or peer groups.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
8. Identifies alternative responses to a dilemma situation, considers the possible consequences of these responses, and selects and defends a position.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
E. Develops the human relations skills and attitudes necessary to communicate with others.		
1. Has positive interactions with individuals of all races, cultures, religions, mental and physical characteristics, when presented with such opportunities.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Respects the rights of others to behave in humanistic ways congruent with their value systems.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3 Encourage others to express their feelings and opinions.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
4 Demonstrates understanding of others' viewpoints and feelings.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
5. Asks for clarifications and elaboration of ideas of others. Clarifies and elaborates own ideas.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
6. Provides emotional and intellectual support for others.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
F. Expresses awareness of the physical, intellectual and social conditions of human beings, and suggests ways these can be improved.		
1. Expresses an interest in the physical, intellectual and social conditions of human beings.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Suggests ways society can help improve the condition of human beings.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3 Suggest ways one can personally and practically help in improving the conditions of human beings.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
G. Demonstrates a commitment to individual and group rights and acts in support of equal opportunity.		
1. Demonstrates respect for the moral and legal rights and basic freedoms of other people, and indicates why such respect is important.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Acts in support of the rules or laws of one's society, works responsibly to change those laws which function unjustly.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Demonstrates an interest or willingness to act in supporting open and equal opportunity, and explains why this is important.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

	Essential for a K-12 Social Studies Program — Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree, Strongly Disagree	If essential, on which grade level can it be introduced? Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, Senior High
4. Participates individually, or with others, in removing legal, social, educational and economic obstacles to the full development of individuals or groups.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
H. Demonstrates effective involvement in social interaction.		
1. Participates in making decisions at home, in school, in peer groups or at work.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
2. Participates in setting, planning, achieving and evaluating the goals of the groups to which one belongs.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S
3. Participates in social, political and economic activities carried on in own community.	SA A NO D SD	P I J S

Adapted with permission from Some Essential Learner Outcomes In Social Studies, Curriculum Bulletin No. 43 (Minneapolis: Minnesota Department of Education, Division of Instruction, 1977).

6. CHOOSING CONTENT

Frances Haley

Background Notes

> Content is derived from objectives and should be selected to implement them. Only that content that contributes to the achieving of previously-determined objectives should be included in a course. All else should be *ruthlessly* eliminated.*

After a planning group has followed carefully the steps described in Section 5, student-centered objectives will have been identified for the social studies program. The logical next step is to select content to implement those objectives. Although this task may seem fairly simple, do not be deceived! All sorts of individual differences come to the surface when a group begins to select content. Here is just a sampling:

"We've always taught state history at fourth grade."

"I think it is *essential* that students know how to locate every state capital on a map."

"It's good for the students to memorize dates and names."

"If the kids can't act right, they might as well not have social studies."

"Teaching values to kids is not my job."

How can a planning group consider all the various values expressed by teachers, parents, state laws, and school district requirements and still come up with content that will fit the program objectives?

We suggest that a planning group think of content as one tool in the process of education. Content selection then can be looked upon as part of the task of determining the nature and sophistication of the tools needed to get the job done.

The activity in this section is designed to help establish a procedure for selecting content. It is designed not to dictate what content to choose but rather to help a planning group cover all the bases and make sure that all value positions are heard and considered. In Appendix A we have provided a number of approaches to content selection. After

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**Social Studies Today: Guidelines for Curriculum Improvement* (Harrisburg, Pa.: Bureau of General and Academic Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1970), p. 24.

completing the activities described in this section, planners might want to look over these approaches and select the one which seems to best fit their needs.

Three handouts are included with this section. You may not want to use them all unless you are planning a K-12 social studies program, in which case you will need to collect information about courses taught (Handout 10), units taught (Handout 11), and time and space focus (Handout 12) at all grade levels. If you are working only on a K-6 program, you probably will not need to develop the matrix in Handout 10. If your focus is on grades 7-12, you may not need Handout 11. (However, in some districts elective courses are offered in the upper elementary grades, especially when elementary schools encompass grades K-8.) Before using this exercise with your planning committee, decide which of the handouts you will need to use to gather information.

Conducting the Activity

Item(s) Provided: (1) Handout 10, "Social Studies Offerings," (2) Handout 11, "Units Taught," (3) Handout 12, "Time and Place."

Item(s) You Should Provide: (1) Duplicate copies of handouts, (2) brainstorming lists from the activity in Section 4, if the group has completed that activity, (3) newsprint, masking tape, marking pens.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) analyze the current course content by grade level, (2) decide what content should be retained from the present offerings, (3) identify content that must be offered to meet state and local mandates, (4) decide which new topics should be added to the curriculum, and (5) assign appropriate grade levels to all content offerings.

Suggested Steps

1. Introduce the activity by explaining that the goal of the first step is to analyze the present program content by grade level. Tell the group that final content selection will be based on how well the student outcomes can be achieved, using specific content. You may want to use the background notes in this section in introducing the activity.

2. Distribute Handout 10, "Social Studies Offerings," and/or Handout 11, "Units Taught." When participants have completed these matrices, they will have a good picture of what is now being taught. Ask them to

work in small groups of three or four, according to grade levels. (Ideally, there should be a group for each grade level, but you can combine some grades if necessary.) Tell each group to check the disciplines and subjects that are now being taught at its grade level, indicating by an "E" those disciplines or subject areas which are emphasized.

If the participants represent all the grade levels involved in the curriculum revision, this task can probably be completed by a planning group at one meeting. However, if not all grade levels are represented, it may be necessary to complete some of this activity after participants go back to their schools and talk with teachers from other grade levels.

If district policy allows each teacher or school to choose content independently, planners may wish to forgo this step. Or they may decide to ask teachers from several schools to complete the matrices and then compare the results.

If special-interest groups are represented on the planning committee (e.g., parents, ethnic groups, women's groups, students), these lay participants can be asked to fill out the matrix by writing an "E" next to topics they feel should be emphasized.

3. When all the matrices have been completed for each grade level, use a large sheet of newsprint to compile a general matrix representing all the grade levels being considered in the curriculum revision. This can be done by the entire group, by the group leader, or by a group recorder. Post this general matrix and ask the small groups to fill in the blanks on their copies.

4. On the posted matrix, circle courses now being taught which are required by state law. (Be sure they are actually required--you may need to check the exact wording of the state regulations.) Also circle any courses required by your district or by individual schools. Add to the matrix and circle any required courses that are *not* being offered. The completed matrix should show all the content offerings, the areas of subject emphasis, and the courses that must be left in or added to the curriculum. Make sure that each small group has recorded this information on its own matrix.

5. Distribute Handout 12, "Time and Place." The purpose of the matrix in this handout is to determine whether the curriculum is balanced

in terms of its emphases on times and places. (How much of the curriculum is devoted to matters that are purely historical? How much is concerned with other places, cultures, countries? How much is focused on the present? On the students' own environment? On the future?) Ask each small group to fill out the matrix in Handout 12 according to the instructions on the handout. Compile the results for all grade levels into a general matrix on a large sheet of newsprint. Post this general matrix and ask each small group to record all this information on its own matrix. (As noted in step 2, it may be necessary to gather some of the needed information from teachers outside the planning workshop.)

6. Each small group now has copies of the two completed general matrices. (If you have used both Handout 10 and Handout 11, each group will have three.) Ask each group to use its matrices to do the following tasks:

a. Circle the content areas that the group feels should remain in the curriculum. (The required content offerings will already be circled.)

b. Cross out the items that should be eliminated from the curriculum.

c. List on a separate sheet the curriculum offerings that should be kept but taught at a different grade level.

d. List the content areas not now being taught which should be added to the curriculum. Indicate the grade level at which each one should be added.

e. List whatever changes should be made in time and place emphasis. (For example, is there too much history?)

Ask the group to record their findings on sheets of newsprint. When all the groups have completed these tasks, post the sheets where all participants can see them.

7. If the planning group has completed the activity in Section 4, post the brainstorm lists showing what should be emphasized in the curriculum. Were these areas emphasized in the content developed during the activity? (If not, can they be added? Where?) If the group did not complete the brainstorm activity, participants should review the matrices and ask themselves whether any important content has been omitted. Remind the group that when they compile the final content list they will need to

consider both the amount of time available for teaching social studies at each grade level and the availability of funds for purchasing materials to implement the suggested content areas.

8. When the activity is completed, the planning group will have identified a list of topics, concepts, and generalizations that should be treated at each grade level. The new content may be significantly different from the existing program, or there may be very few changes. The final test of the new content selections is whether they fit the identified program objectives. If they do, "all systems are go." If they do not, the planning group should "ruthlessly eliminate" any content that will not contribute to achieving the objectives.

Additional Resources

(See page 11 for information about how to obtain ERIC documents, which are identified by ED numbers.)

Beyer, Barry K., and Anthony N. Penna, eds. *Concepts in the Social Studies*. Bulletin 45. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971.
This NCSS bulletin is an excellent resource for defining concepts and explaining why they should be taught, how to teach them, and the implications of concept teaching.

McDevitt, Dan. "Skills, Attitudes and Content: The Confused Teacher." *History and Social Science Teacher* 11, no. 2 (Winter 1975), pp. 27-32.
This article discusses a variety of questions often asked by secondary social studies teachers about teaching strategies and course content.

Svoboda, William S. "Priority Approach to the Social Studies." *Social Studies* 61, no. 1 (January 1970), pp. 26-29.
Svoboda discusses the need for ranking content blocks in a hierarchy of importance in the planning of social studies curricula, especially at the departmental level.

Handout 10

SOCIAL STUDIES OFFERINGS

Course	Grade Level												
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Social science disciplines													
Anthropology													
Sociology													
Geography													
Economics													
Political science													
History													
Psychology													
Philosophy													
Other subject offerings													
Career education													
Ethnic, women's and minority studies													
Environmental education													
Future studies													
Global studies													
Law-focused education													
Values education													

Adapted with permission from Program Improvement for Social Studies Education in Wisconsin (Madison: Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, 1977).

H-11 (6)

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Handout 11

UNITS TAUGHT

Description of Unit	Grade Level												
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

Adapted with permission from Program Improvement for Social Studies Education in Wisconsin (Madison: Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, 1977).

Handout 12

TIME AND PLACE

Place	Grade Level												
	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Self													
Home/Family													
Community/City													
Region													
Nation													
World													

Instructions: Indicate which places are studied at each grade level in your present sequence, using "A," "B," or "C" to denote the time frame (A = past, B = present, C = future). See example below.

	K	1	
Self	B		
Home/Family	B	A B	

Adapted with permission from Program Improvement for Social Studies Education in Wisconsin (Madison: Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, 1977).

7. IDENTIFYING AND SELECTING CURRICULUM MATERIALS

Frances Haley and Sharryl Hawke

Background Notes

After curriculum planners have established a rationale for their program, selected objectives, and decided what content will best attain those objectives, they are ready to identify and select appropriate curriculum materials.

Many factors must be considered in choosing curriculum materials. Among them are (1) relationship to the program objectives, (2) potential student interest, (3) level of difficulty, (4) relationship to program content focus, (5) teacher requirement, and (6) cost.

The introduction to this guide indicates that one option open to planners is to select curriculum materials first, before developing objectives, content, or a rationale. However, if a planning group has used the activities in this guide step by step, its members will have established some major criteria for selecting curriculum materials.

As planners begin to consider materials, they probably will find many that meet some, but not all, of these criteria. They may also come across more than one textbook or set of materials that fits their objectives. In either case they will have to make a decision: Should they choose one text or several texts? Will they need to choose some supplementary materials in order to meet all their program needs?

One way to answer these questions is to pilot test the materials. Although pilot testing will not answer all such questions, it will provide additional information that will be halpful in making decisions. There really is no way of predicting how materials will work with students and teachers until they have been used in the classroom.

Pilot testing takes time: the selection of pilot teachers must be done carefully, criteria for evaluating the pilot test must be established and applied, and a reporting system must be designed. Although we have not provided detailed suggestions for accomplishing these steps, we urge planners to consider including pilot testing in the program planning process.

The activity in this section is designed to help program planners identify and select curriculum materials. A planning group may decide to use only part of the activity or to follow each of the steps in order. Regardless of how a group goes about selecting materials, we recommend that *some systematic process* be used. All the time and energy spent in preplanning and curriculum design can be wasted if the final materials selection is not based on previous decisions.

Conducting the Activity

Item(s) Provided: (1) Handout 13, "Materials Analysis Form," (2) Handout 14, "Determining Readability," (3) Handout 15, "Suggested Criteria for Evaluating Social Studies Materials for Sexism," (4) Handout 16, "Suggested Criteria for Evaluating Social Studies Materials for Ethnic Bias," (15) Handout 17, "Materials Summary."

Item(s) You Should Provide: (1) Duplicate copies of the handouts, (2) publishers' catalogs, (3) samples of prospective materials, (4) newsprint, masking tape, marking pens.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) determine district or school criteria for materials selection, (2) identify available materials that meet district criteria, (3) analyze materials using specific, agreed-upon criteria, (4) make preliminary selection of materials for pilot testing, and (5) make final materials selection on the basis of results of analyses and pilot testing.

Suggested Steps

1. Using the brainstorm technique described in Section 4, list all criteria that are important in selecting curriculum materials. A sample list developed by a school district in California includes the following factors:

a. Sequential skill development.
b. Appropriate readability level.
c. Multicultural emphasis.
d. Student activity emphasis.
e. Incorporation of conceptual approach.
f. Emphasis on inquiry methods.
g. Variety of instructional settings for each concept.
h. Valuing activities at each grade level.

i. Chronological sequence where appropriate.

j. Interdisciplinary approach in dealing with social sciences. Your list should reflect your own rationale, objectives, and content decisions in addition to any other considerations deemed important. Be sure to consider teacher, school, and community needs in addition to student needs.

2. Identify available curriculum materials that meet your list of broad criteria. (We have included in Appendix B a list of the names and addresses of social studies publishers.) If your state has textbook guidelines, obtain this list for identifying appropriate materials.

3. Write to publishers, or talk with their local representatives, and ask for sample copies of the materials. Be sure you get all the components--student materials, teacher materials, tests, workbooks, audio-visual materials. Various components frequently differ in quality, so it is important to look at all the pieces of a materials package, not just the student text. If you have decided to pilot test materials, ask the publishers' representatives if you can obtain their materials for the pilot tests.

4. Plan a half-day workshop to introduce planners to the skills and procedures used in analyzing materials. You may wish to invite only members of your social studies curriculum committee or you may want to expand the committee to include department heads, representatives from each school, administrators, students, parents, representatives of special-interest groups (for example, ethnic groups or women's groups), and specialists in such areas as remedial reading.

5. Conduct the workshop. A suggested agenda, along with the approximate time required for each activity, is presented below. (You may want to begin by brainstorming criteria for materials selection, as in step 1 above, in which case extra time should be allotted for the introduction.)

a. Introduction: Explain the purpose of the workshop and the need for acquiring selection skills (10 min.).

b. Opening task: Divide the participants into groups of three or four and ask each small group to examine one piece of curriculum material. On the basis of this brief examination, each group should list from two to five of the most-distinctive characteristics of

80

its sample materials. Ask the groups to post their lists on sheets of newsprint when they have finished (30 min.).

c. Involve the whole group in a discussion of the commonalities and differences that are evident in the lists. Encourage the group to sort these into general categories of characteristics that can be evaluated (20 min.).

d. Distribute copies of Handout 31, "Materials Analysis Form," and allow participants time to look it over. Explain that information about the sample materials will be recorded on this form during the workshop, and that some participants will be using the same form to complete the actual materials analysis after the workshop (30 min.).

e. Ask participants to reassemble into their original groups of three or four and distribute copies of Handout 14, "Determining Readability." Explain that they will be using the Fry readability formula to determine the reading levels of their sample materials. The results should be recorded in section 1c of the "Materials Analysis Form" (45 min.).

f. Distribute Handout 15, "Suggested Criteria for Evaluating Social Studies Materials for Sexism," and ask the small groups to evaluate their samples of curriculum materials for sexual bias, using the questions on the handout as a guide. The results should be recorded in section 6c of the "Materials Analysis Form" (30 min.).

g. Distribute Handout 16, "Suggested Criteria for Evaluating Social Studies Materials for Ethnic Bias," and ask the small groups to evaluate their samples of curriculum materials for racial or ethnic bias. The results should be recorded in section 6d of the "Materials Analysis Form" (30 min.).

h. Distribute Handout 17, "Materials Summary," and ask each small group to fill it out as completely as possible on the basis of the analyses performed thus far. Participants should refer back to the posted lists of distinctive characteristics as well as to their handout sheets. Allow time for answering questions about sections of the analysis form that were not dealt with directly during the workshop session (30 min.).

i. Explain that an extensive analysis of all the potentially appropriate curriculum materials will be performed later by a smaller working group, using the same criteria developed and analysis forms presented in the workshop. You may want to appoint the working group at this time, or to ask for additional volunteers if the core group has already been appointed. If not all of the workshop participants are members of the program planning committee, you might want to determine whether the workshop group wants to reconvene for the purpose of examining the materials that are eventually selected, either before or after they are pilot tested. In any case, this workshop activity should be concluded by an explanation of how, and by whom, curriculum materials will finally be selected.

6. Because the organization of the actual analysis of materials will necessarily depend on available personnel and funds and on the number of materials packages included in the analysis, we cannot recommend a standard procedure. However, we do make the following suggestions:

a. Each set of materials should be analyzed by at least two persons--preferably three--working separately.

b. Each component at every grade level should be examined. Different authors may write at different reading levels for the same grade, and a multiple-author text is likely to contain a variety of approaches and reading levels. Moreover, such components as teachers' guides, tests, workbooks, and audiovisual materials often are developed by someone other than the author of the text. So take a careful look at *everything* in the package.

c. A summary form should be developed, or you may wish to use the sample form in Handout 13. The persons who have completed the analysis of each materials package should work together to prepare the summary form.

7. When all analyses and summaries are complete, final selection should be made. This can be accomplished by one person, on the basis of the summaries, or by a committee. If you pilot test the materials, the results of these tests should be added to the summary analyses.

Additional Resources

(See page 11 for information about how to obtain ERIC documents, which are identified by ED numbers.)

Bond, David J. *Curriculum Materials Examination System.* Corte Madera, Calif.: Marin County (California) Superintendent of Schools, 1970. 65 pp. ED 084 177. (MF $.83, HC $3.50; plus $.30 postage.)
This document presents guidelines for selecting and evaluating social studies curriculum materials developed by the Marin Social Studies Project. Questions are presented which will help identify specific strengths and weaknesses in materials. Consideration is given to the objectives and rationale, inquiry processes, topics presented, teaching strategies, means of student motivation, media forms, and related evaluation instruments. A checklist for curriculum materials evaluation is included to help curriculum planners compare different sets of materials.

Breiter, Joan, and Jack Menne. *A Procedure for Textbook Evaluation Illustrated by an Analysis of Fifth-Grade Social Studies Texts.* Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University, 1974. 31 pp. ED 132 130. (MF $.83, HC $2.06; plus $.30 postage.)
This study focused on two tasks: (1) developing a general procedure for evaluating social studies textbooks which could be adapted to any locale, which could be used at any grade level, and which would be appropriate for other subject areas and (2) illustrating the suggested procedure at the fifth-grade level. Rating scales, topic lists, and analysis worksheets are included as appendices.

Curriculum Materials Analysis System, rev. ed. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1971.
This instrument provides teachers and educators with a method for analyzing curriculum ideas and materials in breadth and depth. It is available in both short and long forms. The short form is most useful to curriculum committees, while the long form is designed to help plan courses on curriculum analysis or to enable planners to analyze materials in great depth.

Hedstrom, Judith E., and Mary Jane Turner. *Career Education Sourcebook.* Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1977.

Forty-seven analyses of career education/social studies materials are presented in this book, along with an annotated bibliography of resources in the ERIC system. A chart describing content and teaching strategies is included for each set of materials.

Hedstrom, Judith E., June E. Ramos, and Alice Vigliani. *Selective Bibliographies in Social Science Education.* Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1977.

These five bibliographies in anthropology and world history, behavioral sciences, economics, political science, and U.S. history contain annotated listings of texts, supplementary print and audiovisual materials, games and simulations, ERIC documents, and organizations and associations.

Materials and Human Resources for Teaching Ethnic Studies: An Annotated Bibliography. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1976.

More than 1,100 entries are contained in this book, which describes curriculum materials, teacher and student resources, films, listings of ethnic organizations, and publishers of ethnic studies materials.

Milburn, G. "How Are Social Studies Curriculum Materials Evaluated?" *History and Social Science Teacher* 12, no. 4 (Summer 1977), pp. 237-241.

This article describes and compares two principal modes of evaluating social studies curricula: the Curriculum Materials Analysis System (CMAS) developed by the Social Science Education Consortium and an analysis system developed by Elizabeth Vallance.

Rice, Marion J. *The Reduction Model for Precollege Curriculum Writing.* Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, October 1976. 7 pp. ED 137 154. (MF $.83, HC $1.67; plus $.30 postage.)

This booklet contains a model designed to help curriculum developers prepare classroom materials in the social studies which is helpful to teachers because of its simple and direct presentations of complex ideas from the social sciences.

Social Studies Curriculum Materials Data Book. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1971--.
The *Data Book* contains more than 500 analyses of social studies projects, textbooks, supplementary materials, games and simulations, and teacher resources. Each data sheet includes an overview of the significant features of the material along with information about components, format, cost, time required, presumed characteristics of students and teachers, rationale and general objectives, content, teaching procedures, and evaluative data. Each entry is cross-referenced by subject area and grade level.

Superka, Douglas P., et al. *Values Education Sourcebook: Conceptual Approaches, Materials Analyses, and an Annotated Bibliography*. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1976.
Designed as a resource guide to values education, the *Sourcebook* focuses on five major approaches to values education: inculcation, moral development, analysis, clarification, and action learning. For each approach there is a detailed explanation, a description of teaching methods, an illustrative activity, and analyses of student and teacher materials that reflect that approach.

Turner, Mary Jane. *Handbook of Legal Education Resources*. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1977. Descriptions of 90 sets of classroom materials, ERIC resources, and basic law concepts in children's literature are included in this annotated resource book.

Handout 13

MATERIALS ANALYSIS FORM

General Instructions

For the most part, no narrative is required. Most of the items require a check (✓) answer; a few require numerical ratings. At the end of each section a space has been left for you to extend or explain any answer in that section.

Several items have "scored" ratings, based on a rating of "0" for none, "1" for poor, "2" for average, and "3" for excellent. If the materials are published but not available, leave this box blank. If the item does not apply to the materials, write "NA." At the end of the instrument is a form for recording the ratings on these items.

Three sections (4c, 5c, and 6a) will require different treatment, depending on the kind of textbook and/or program being analyzed. If the program is in secondary social studies, *all* of the subpoints in 4c may apply. If a government, economics, or sociology textbook is being analyzed, only one may be appropriate. In all instances, you should rate only those items that apply to the materials. If you are analyzing an elementary text, you may wish to add objectives under "other."

Section 5c should not be rated unless you are familiar with a particular school's content focus. This is a school decision.

Section 6a should receive "NA" in the rating box except for American history text analyses, in which case you should note in writing the extent to which minorities, including women, are included in the textual and/or visual materials.

Name of Analyst____________________ Date of Analysis____________

Title of Materials______________________________

Publisher____________________________________

Name and Title of Author(s)________________________

____

1. Product Data

Indicate specific answers for each of the following:

a. Components: (You may wish to attach list with prices. Note date of catalog.)

____

____

b. Grade level: Publisher's assessment __________________
Analyst's assessment __________________

c. Reading level: Publisher's assessment __________________
Fry Readability Scale: (see Handout 14)
Narrative __________________
Primary sources __________________

d. Publication date and edition __________________

e. Time required __________________

f. Field tested _____ Yes _____ No
If yes, are results available? ____ Yes ____ No
Source __________________

g. Number of pages __________________

h. Student text binding: Hard cover ____
Paper cover ____
Other ____________

Rating: 1h

i. Need for teacher training recommended by analyst:
_____ Little or none _____ Some _____ Much

Comments on Section 1:

2. Support Materials

a. Teacher's guide: (Rating should be based on analyst's judgment of comprehensive, helpfulness, and usefulness.)

___ Guide ___ Annotated edition

Rating: 2a

b. Tests _____ Yes _____ No

If yes, complete the following:

Rating: 2b

Format of tests:

___ Spirit masters
___ In teacher's guide
___ Other (specify) ____________________

Type of tests: (Rank 1, 2, 3 in order of emphasis, using 1 for more emphasis.)

___ Multiple choice
___ True/false
___ Fill-in
___ Other (specify) ____________________

___ Essay
___ Matching
___ Short answer

Type of items:

	Mainly high level	Mainly low level	Balance of high and low levels
___ Cognitive	________	________	________
___ Affective	________	________	________
___ Skill	________	________	________

Are tests related to objectives? _____ Yes _____ No

c. Workbooks _____ Yes _____ No

Rating: 2c

If yes, complete the following:

Type of workbook activities:

___ Required
___ Optional

___ Reinforcement
___ Enrichment

___ Student-directed
___ Teacher-directed

d. Audiovisual materials _____ Yes _____ No

Rating: 2d

If yes, refer to catalog listing for type and description.

Comments on Section 2:

3. Student Text Format

Rating: 3

Indicate the extent of use of the following items:

a. Body-of-book format

Item	Little or no use	Moderate use	Extensive use	
Advanced organizers				Chapters
				Units
Review questions				Chapters
				Units
Bibliographies				Chapters
				Units
Tests				Chapters
				Units
Extending activities				Chapters
				Units
Illustrations				Chapters
				Units
Maps				Chapters
				Units
Charts				Chapters
				Units
Photographs				Chapters
				Units
Art reproductions				Chapters
				Units
Glossary of terms				Chapters
				Units

b. End-of-book format

Item	Little or no use	Moderate use	Extensive use
Bibliography			
Comprehensive index			
Glossary of terms			

Comments on Section 3:

4. Objectives

Rating: 4

Indicate "yes" or "no" for each item.

a. General _____ Yes _____ No

Cognitive _____ Yes _____ No
Affective _____ Yes _____ No
Skill _____ Yes _____ No
Are evaluative measures based on general objectives? ___ Yes ___ No

b. Specific _____ Yes _____ No

Behavioral _____ Yes _____ No
Cognitive _____ Yes _____ No
Affective _____ Yes _____ No
Skill _____ Yes _____ No
Are evaluative measures based on specific objectives? ___ Yes ___ No

c. Do the objectives conform to the goals and objectives of the school in the following categories?

Rating: 4c

Self-concept _____ Yes _____ No
Social studies skills _____ Yes _____ No
Economics _____ Yes _____ No
Geography _____ Yes _____ No
Political science/government _____ Yes _____ No
Sociology/anthropology _____ Yes _____ No
History/culture _____ Yes _____ No
Other ________________________________ _____ Yes _____ No
________________________________ _____ Yes _____ No
________________________________ _____ Yes _____ No
________________________________ _____ Yes _____ No

Comments on Section 4:

5. Content

Note specific answers to each of the following:

a. What is the content approach (conceptual, social sciences, affective domain, other)?

____
____
____

b. What is the specific subject matter focus of the text?

____

____

____

c. Does the content focus conform to the emphasis(ses) of your school?

_____ Yes _____ No

Rating: 5c

d. Could the materials be easily adapted to include a career education focus? _____ Yes _____ No

If yes, briefly explain how. __________________________________

____

____

Comments on Section 5:

6. Special Content Considerations

a. Inclusion of minority contributions (note particularly Native Americans, Mexican role in the Southwest, blacks other than Civil War and slavery)

___ Poor ___ Average ___ Excellent

Rating: 6a

b. Possible areas of controversy (list): __________________________

____

____

c. Sex stereotyping ___ None ___ Some ___ Much

Rating: 6c

If any, give specific examples: __________

____

____

d. Race/ethnic stereotyping

___ None ___ Some ___ Much

Rating: 6d

If any, give specific examples: ____________

____

____

e. Use of primary source documents

___ None ___ Some ___ Much

Rating: 6e

If some or much, describe briefly how primary source documents are used.

f. Declaration of Independence (if appropriate)

___ Yes ___ No ___ Annotated

U.S. Constitution (if appropriate)

___ Yes ___ No ___ Annotated

g. Other (specify) ___

Comments on Section 6:

7. Teaching Strategies

If there is more than one answer, rank according to the order of information.

Rating: 7a

a. Major teaching strategies (discussion, lecture, inquiry)

b. Major student involvement activities (discussion, listening, writing, reading)

Rating: 7b

c. Do the strategies provide opportunity for individualization?

Rating: 7c

___ Yes ___ Some ___ No

Comments on Section 7:

8. Distinguishing Characteristics

Note emphasis on inquiry, skills, subject matter.

____

____

____

____

____

____

Comments on Section 8:

9. Rating (0 = none; 1 = poor; 2 = average; 3 = excellent)

Item	1h	2a	2b	2c	2d	3	4	5
Rating								

Item	5c	6a	6c	6d	6e	7a	7b	7c
Rating								

Comments on Section 9:

10. Evaluative Statement

Write a short (one or two paragraphs) evaluative statement based on your judgment of the material. You should be sure to specify your criteria for evaluation. Please use a separate piece of paper for the evaluative statement.

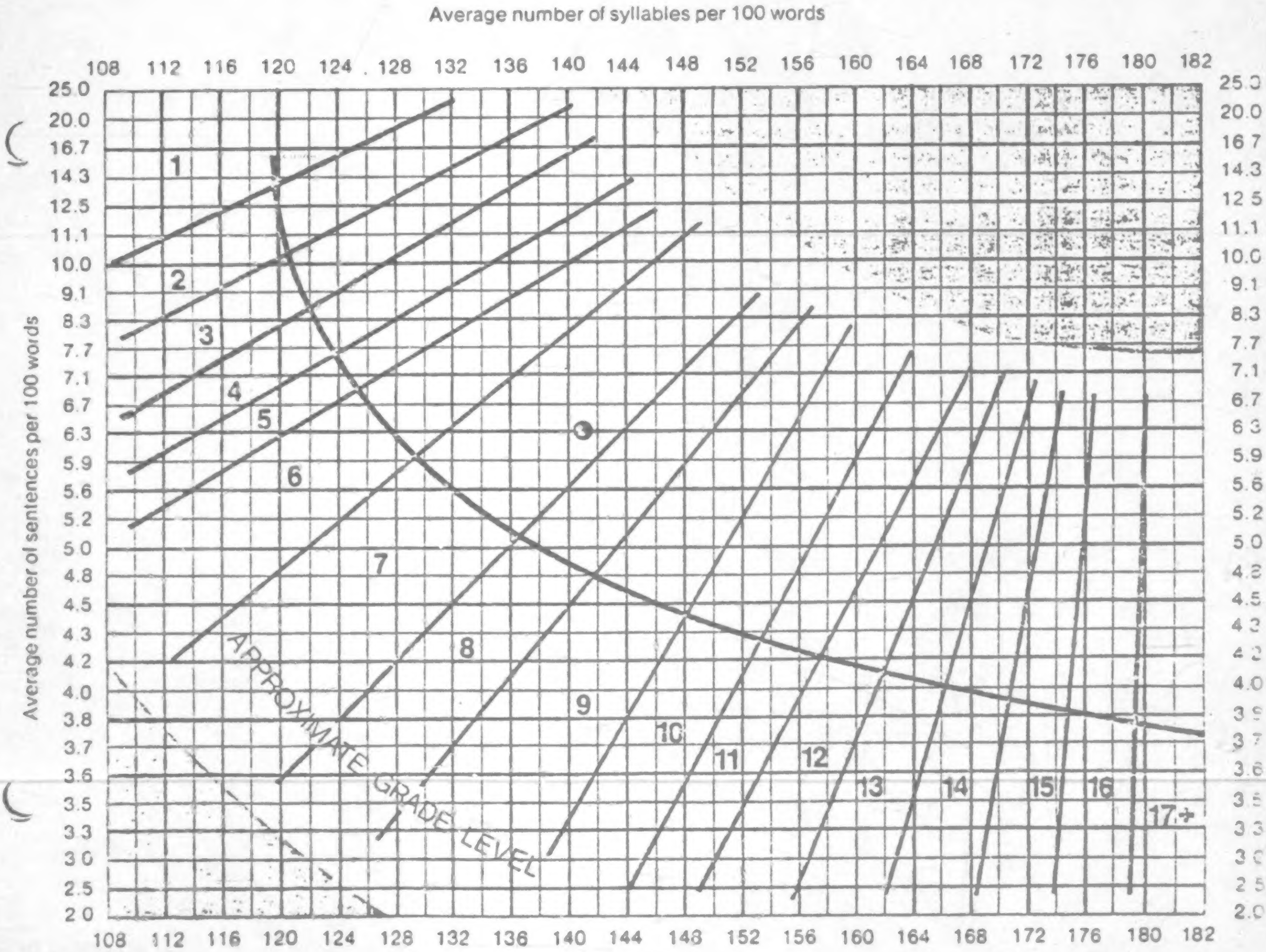
Handout 14

DETERMINING READABILITY

Students will not benefit from even the best-designed curriculum materials unless they can read them. Thus reading level is an important factor in determining whether materials are appropriate for the grade levels at which they will be introduced. Although many factors influence readability, probably the two most important factors are length of words and length of sentences. The Fry Graph for Estimating Readability assesses these factors by counting the average number of sentences and syllables in sample 100-word passages of a book. We have reproduced it here along with instructions for using it.

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY — EXTENDED

by Edward Fry, Rutgers University Reading Center, New Brunswick, N.J. 08904



How to Use the Fry Readability Graph

1. Randomly select three passages and count out exactly 100 words in each, starting with the beginning of a sentence. Be sure to count all proper nouns, initializations, and numerals. (A word is defined as a group of symbols with a space on either side; thus, "Joe," IRA," "1945," and "&" are each one word.)

2. Count the number of sentences in each 100-word passage, estimating the length of the fraction of the last sentence to the nearest 10 percent.

3. Count the total number of syllables in each 100-word passage. If you don't have a hand counter available, an easy way is to put a mark above every syllable after the first one in each word; when you get to the end of the passage, count the number of marks and add 100. Small calculators can also be used as counters by pushing the numeral 1, then pushing the + sign for each word or syllable when counting. (A syllable is defined as a phonetic syllable. Generally, there are as many syllables as vowel sounds. For example, "stopped" is one syllable and "wanted" is two syllables. When counting syllables for numerals and initializations, count one syllable for each symbol. For example, "1945" is four syllables, "IRA" three syllables, and "&" is one syllable.)

4. Find the average sentence length and syllable length for the three passages. Here is an example of how to do that:

	Sentences per 100 words	Syllables per 100 words
100-word sample, page 5	9.1	122
100-word sample, page 89	8.5	140
100-word sample, page 150	7.0	129
	3)24.6	3)391
	8.2	130

5. Find the lines on the graph that correspond to the average sentence length (horizontal line) and average syllable length (vertical line) in the sample passages. Place a dot where the two lines intersect. The area in which the dot falls indicates the approximate grade level of the materials in terms of readability. Our sample graph shows a seventh-grade reading level.

NOTE: If the three sample passages show great variability, selecting and measuring several additional samples will enhance the reliability of the test. If the dot falls into one of the gray areas on the graph, the grade-level score should be considered invalid.

Additional Factors to Consider in Determining Readability

Format

1. Amount of print on each page.
2. Size of print.
3. Space between lines (leading).
4. Width of margins.
5. Width of columns.
6. Number of graphics (pictures, charts, diagrams, illustrations).
7. Position of graphics (layout).
8. Use of color.

Content

1. Length of paragraphs and chapters.
2. Placement of vocabulary definitions (close to word or in glossary).
3. Sequence of vocabulary development (simple or complex).
4. Number of new ideas in a paragraph or on a page.
5. Use of advance organizers (a) to introduce organization of book (b) to introduce new concepts.
6. Interest level (relevance to student's experience, level of affect).
7. Use of graphics to illustrate concepts.

Handout 15

SUGGESTED CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS FOR SEXISM

1. Do females appear as frequently as males?

2. Is sexist language used?

Sexist	Preferred
Man	People, persons
He	He/she or they...them or one
Caveman: businessman: chairman: congressman:	Cave people; business people or business person; chairperson or chair: congressperson, representative, or legislator.
Woman doctor, woman lawyer	Doctor, lawyer

3. Are females portrayed in a limited and stereotyped manner? Watch for the following characteristics:

   a. Uncreative and unimaginative (after all, how many female geniuses are there?).

   b. Helpless, dependent on men.

   c. Fearful, worrisome, overemotional.

   d. Vain, preoccupied by clothes, appearance, romance.

   e. Inactive, unathletic, weak.

   f. Secondary to men, or as their accoutrements. (One text reads, "Pioneers brought their wives and children West." How would it sound if it were "The pioneers brought their *husbands* and children West"? How often do you read, "The man and wife"...not "the woman and husband"...?)

   g. Less bright, especially in science and math.

   h. Ridiculous (recall the stereotype of the old-maid schoolteacher).

   i. Tricky, sneaky, mean, nasty (the witch, the bitch, the neurotic wife or career woman, etc.).

4. Are females relegated to passive background roles rather than assigned active leading positions?

5. Are females alone depicted as nurturant and domestic?

6. Is the viewer/reader given the impression that interesting, acceptable, or achievement-oriented females are the *exception*?

7. Are employed women pictured in low-status positions or in positions subordinate to men (always the secretary, never the boss)?

8. Are people shown solely in traditional roles and life styles? (Women as housewives, mothers, teachers of young children, nurses, secretaries; men as breadwinners who seldom engage in indoor housework or child care. Are all adults married? Are any single-parent families shown?)

9. Are adjectives describing familial status or physical appearance used more often to describe women than men? (All the attractive blondes seem to be female, and we always know if someone is a mother but we're seldom aware of who is a father.)

10. Are females pictured as engaged in activity or as merely watching males perform?

11. Are most women pictured at home, doing housework and wearing aprons? (One seldom sees a woman driving a car in books for young children!)

12. Are traditional "female" values, such as concern for people, sympathy, and gentleness, given as much respect and attention as the traditionally "masculine" values of competition, strength, and bravado? Are both kinds of values offered as appropriate to all people?

13. Are women insulted by patronizing phrases or outright put-downs (e.g., the adjective "shrill" to describe a voice or "promiscuous" to describe female sexual behavior)? Are grown women called "girls," implying that they haven't grown up?

14. Are female children pictured as smaller than males, and are females generally in the background?

15. Are comments about women's contributions to history integrated throughout the material?

16. Are woman's suffrage and other women's movements given adequate--and respectful--coverage?

17. Is history written solely in terms of wars, or does the material include information about domestic life, social welfare, education, and other areas where women have made significant impact?

18. Does personification of inanimate objects and animals involve the female as frequently as the male, and without traditional stereotypes?

This list of criteria was adapted from Marjorie Stern, ed., "Changing Sexist Practices in the Classroom," in *Women in Education* (Washington: American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO, n.d.), and was based in part on Mary McEvoy Daum's "A Study in Sexism" in *Children's Catalog*, Easy Books (University of Minnesota, July 1972).

Handout 16

SUGGESTED CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS FOR ETHNIC BIAS

1. Is the material educationally sound?

   a. Is the author's rationale clear and appropriate?
   b. Are cognitive and affective objectives made clear, and are they appropriate?
   c. Are teaching modes and strategies clearly defined, and are they appropriate?

2. Is the material adaptable to your situation?
   a. Is the material appropriate for your class composition?
   b. Is the material appropriate for the community in which your school is located?
   c. If used separately, will the materials present a balanced view of ethnic groups?

3. How sound is the ethnic content of the materials?

   a. Do the materials show and discuss different ethnic groups relating to each other, or are groups shown in isolation?
   b. Do the materials show actual examples of the language or dialect of the ethnic group?
   c. How accurate are the historical facts presented in the materials?
   d. Do major omissions distort the historical accuracy of the materials?
   e. How free of bias is the overall content of the materials?
   f. To what extent do the materials stereotype members of the ethnic group?
   g. Do the materials portray a diversity of life styles within the ethnic group?
   h. Is the ethnic group presented from only one viewpoint or from many points of view?
   i. To what extent do the materials portray the influence of the ethnic group on life in the United States?
   j. Do the materials emphasize the ethnic group's heroes to the exclusion of its other members?
   k. To what extent do the materials promote student understanding of the universality of human joys and problems?
   l. To what extent do the materials promote the concept of assimilation (groups "melting" together in society until they become indistinguishable)?
   m. To what extent do the materials promote the concept of ethnic pluralism (groups living together in harmony and mutual respect while maintaining separate identities)?
   n. To what extent do the materials promote student appreciation of all ethnic groups?

4. How good are the materials, overall?

   a. In general, how sound is the content of these materials?
   b. In general, how innovative are these materials?
   c. In general, of what quality is the physical and technical presentation of the materials?

Handout 17

MATERIALS SUMMARY

Title of Materials ____

Publisher ____

Subject Area ____
(Social studies, U.S. history, American government, legal education, area studies, etc.)

Grade Level(s)

K__ 1__ 2__ 3__ 4__ 5__ 6__ 7__ 8__ 9__ 10__ 11__ 12__

Components

Hardcover texts ____ Softcover texts ____ Teacher's guide ____

Workbooks ____ Tests ____ Audiovisual materials ____

Other ______________________________

Overall Reading Level:

At grade level ____ Above grade level ____ Below grade level ____

Cost Per Pupil:

Essential components ______________ All components ____________

Developer's General Rationale or Major Goal ____________________

____

____

Program Objectives:

Cognitive ____ Affective ____ Skill ____

Content Approach (elementary)

Conceptual ____ Discipline-based ____

Affective ____ Other ______________________________

Content Approach (secondary)

U.S. History

Chronological ____ Thematic ____ Topical ____ Other ____________

U.S. Government

Structural/legal ____ Behavioral ____ Other ________________

Subject Focus

K-1	____	7	____
2	____	8	____
3	____	9	____
4	____	10	____
5	____	11	____
6	____	12	____

Major Teaching Strategy ____________________

____

Extent of Teacher Materials

Detailed ____ Minimal ____

Major Student Involvement ____________________

Inclusion of Individualizing Activities/Components

Yes ____ No ____

Ethnic/Minority Dimensions Appropriate to District Population and Learning Goals

Yes ____ No ____

Explain:

Representation of Sexes Appropriate to District Learning Goals

Yes ____ No ____

Explain:

Program Strengths:

Program Weaknesses:

8. EVALUATION AND TESTING

Texas Education Agency, Eileen Peters, and Michael Zieky

Evaluation is one of the most important aspects of a school curriculum program. This statement is especially true in view of the increasing demands placed on school districts to be accountable. This section addresses the many issues and problems related to evaluating both a social studies program and individual student performance.

Planners who have worked through previous sections of this guide probably have some ideas about what they want to evaluate, who the target groups might be, and how they might begin the process of designing evaluation procedures. Not all aspects of a curriculum plan, of course, can or should be evaluated; planners must identify those outcomes they most want to measure. The first part of this section provides an activity and some resources to help planners zero in on their evaluation priorities. One of the accompanying handouts, "The Purpose of Evaluation in the Social Studies," poses some questions about evaluation that might be asked by students, school administrators, and parents; this handout can serve as a useful checklist to help program planners clarify their own ideas about the purpose of evaluation.

The second subsection, "Designing an Evaluation for the Program," deals with some of the problems that may be encountered in developing a plan for measuring the effectiveness of a curriculum program and presents useful ideas about evaluation design, sampling, and analysis of results.

The third and last subsection, "Evaluating Student Performance," offers guidelines and practical ideas for constructing student tests of all kinds and for using the test results to improve individual and group performance. Handout 20, "Checklist for Evaluating Informal Classroom

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The bulk of this chapter was taken, with minor changes, from *Evaluation and Social Studies: Practical Ideas for Classroom Teachers,* a bulletin developed by the Texas Education Agency. For use of this material we are especially indebted to Elvin Tyrone, social studies consultant; Leroy Psencik, director of the division of curriculum development; and Louis Grigar, program director for social studies. The subsection "Designing an Evaluation for the Program" was developed by Eileen Peters and Michael Zieky of the Educational Testing Service in Boston.

Tests," can be used by individual teachers to improve their own "home-made" tests for measuring lesson objectives. The entire subsection may be duplicated and distributed to classroom teachers to help them design procedures for evaluating student achievement and specific objectives.

A selective, annotated list of additional resources has been included at the end of this section.

Deciding on Priorities for Evaluation

Background Notes

Before evaluation procedures can be designed and implemented, a program planning group must decide what elements of a curriculum program need to be--and can be--evaluated. This step is best accomplished through a group activity. Including parents and school administrators in the activity will help ensure future support for and understanding of the program as well as solicit additional views about evaluation priorities. If a school district must comply with an accountability mandate from an outside agency, a representative of that agency might be asked to sit in.

Conducting the Activity

Item(s) Provided: (1) Handout 18, "The Purpose of Evaluation in the Social Studies," (2) Handout 19, "Priorities for Evaluation," (3) Handout 20, "Checklist for Evaluating Informal Classroom Tests" (for later use).

Item(s) You Should Provide: (1) Duplicate copies of Handouts 1 and 2, (2) newsprint, marking pens, masking tape.

Activity Objectives: Participants will be able to (1) reach a consensus about what aspect of the curriculum program most needs to be evaluated, (2) identify other evaluation needs and rank them in order of their importance, and (3) consider ways in which the interests and concerns of parents, school administrators, outside agencies, and others in the community can and should influence the final evaluation plan.

Suggested Steps

1. Distribute copies of Handout 18, "The Purpose of Evaluation in the Social Studies," and allow participants time to read it carefully.

2. Distribute copies of Handout 19, "Priorities for Evaluation," and ask participants to fill in the blanks.

3. Post three sheets of newsprint, one for each of the following categories: "Planning Group Priorities," "Perceived Supervisor Priorities," "Perceived Parent Priorities." Ask individual participants to record on the appropriate sheets their answers to the questions in Handout 19.

4. Divide the "Planning Group Priorities" into two categories: (a) those evaluation priorities that are related to the effectiveness of the entire program or of a course or unit and (b) those which are related to specific lesson objectives or to the performance of individual students.

5. Ask the group to try to reach a consensus on which item in the first category is the most important. Once a top priority has been identified, the group should rank the others mentioned in order of their importance.

6. Explain that the priorities listed on the other two sheets of newsprint, "Perceived Supervisor Priorities" and "Perceived Parent Priorities," will be organized and shared with representatives of these two groups, and that the group may want to revise these lists on the basis of feedback received from parents and supervisors. Ask the group to discuss the extent to which others' priorities should influence the final evaluation plan. (How much weight should be given to the priorities cited by parents? By supervisors? If others have identified priorities that are not related to the scope, goals, and content of the program, should the program be revised to accommodate the concerns of others?) At this point you might want to appoint a working group to follow through on this step and report back to the group at a subsequent session. This working group may also be assigned to classify and prioritize those evaluation needs identified by the group which are related to specific lesson objectives and individual student performance. This prioritized list can later be duplicated and provided to classroom teachers along with Handout 20, "Checklist for Evaluating Informal Classroom Tests."

When all the prioritized lists have been completed, the planning group can begin to design a detailed evaluation for the program. Suggestions and guidelines for designing an evaluation are provided in the next part of this section.

Designing an Evaluation for the Program

Once a program planning group has decided what aspects of the curriculum program can and should be evaluated, the next step is to formulate an evaluation design that will spell out the methods to be used in measuring outcomes, analyzing and interpreting findings, and reporting results.

Designing a valid evaluation plan requires some knowledge of the use of statistical measuring techniques. Since few teachers and curriculum planners possess either such knowledge or the willingness to devote some time to acquiring it, at this point a program planning group may want to make use of the services of an evaluation specialist. Many large school districts have staff evaluation specialists; a smaller district probably would need to call in an outside consultant to help design an evaluation program. (If you need to go outside the district for help, be sure to check with other school districts that have employed evaluation specialists before entering into a contractural agreement with a consultant. The experience of other districts may provide some indication of whether your planning group will be able to establish a good working relationship with a particular outside evaluation specialist.)

Whether you work with a staff specialist or an outside consultant, here are some useful suggestions for working with an evaluation expert:

1. Establish the role of the specialist at the outset. (To what degree will the specialist be responsible for design? For conducting the evaluation? For analyzing results? For interpreting results? For preparing reports on the results?)

2. Make sure the specialist can and will explain the technical aspects of the evaluation procedures to the planning group and others in plain English that can be understood by everyone.

3. Encourage the members of the planning group to familiarize themselves with some of the uses and limitations of various statistical measuring techniques, so that they will be aware of the problems that might be encountered in using any given design and so that they will have a realistic idea of what will actually be measured by a particular technique.

The next part of this subsection contains information that we think will be useful in implementing the third of these suggestions. We will begin by pointing out some of the pitfalls that should be avoided in designing an evaluation, go on to explain some evaluation techniques that are likely to produce valid findings, and then provide some guidelines for selecting samples and allowing for sampling error. Finally, we will offer a few suggestions for reporting evaluation results.

Pitfalls and Problems

The most logical way to evaluate a unit in a curriculum program is to compare students' performance before they were exposed to the unit (pretest results) with their performance after they have finished the unit (posttest results). However, this process is not as simple as it sounds.

For example, let's assume we have evaluated a new 11th-grade American history course by administering a history achievement test at the beginning of the course and giving students a parallel version of the same test at the end of the course. Diagrammatically, the evaluation design would look like this:

Pretest		Posttest
	X	
O_1		O_2

(O = observation; X = American history course)

Let's assume further that the mean posttest score attained by students was significantly higher than the mean pretest score. Can we then assume that the results of our evaluation can be interpreted to mean that our American history course has been smashingly successful in attaining its objectives (teaching students historical facts)?

The answer is *no*--because our evaluation design has failed to control or allow for extraneous factors that might have influenced the difference in mean scores. These extraneous factors are called *variables*. Before coming to any conclusion about the effectiveness of our history course, we must ask ourselves two questions:

1. Was the difference in scores caused by the content of the course or by something else?

2. If we decide that the course itself caused the difference, would the same mean posttest score have resulted if the course had been taught by a different teacher? If a different instrument had been used to measure pretest and posttest results?

Non-Treatment-Related Variables. An extraneous factor that has nothing to do with what goes on in the classroom is called a *non-treatment-related variable*. The following variables fall into this category:

1. History. What happened in their families and in the community, nation, and world while students were taking the course? One school district in Connecticut introduced a new curriculum designed to increase students' awareness of minority problems shortly before Martin Luther King, Jr., was killed and rioting ensued in large cities. District planners later decided that the publicizing of these incidents probably had had a much greater effect on the students' knowledge and attitudes about minorities than anything that had gone on in the classroom.

2. Maturation. Students change over time no matter what or how they are taught. As they mature, they may become better able to comprehend and deal with many of the concepts and problems that are dealt with in the posttest questions.

3. Testing. The effect of simply having taken the pretest may show up in the posttest results. Students usually score higher the second time they take a test.

4. Instrumentation. The measuring instrument may change. Even if standardized tests are used, alternative forms are never perfectly parallel. Furthermore, in scoring essay tests teachers may be more willing to give students the benefit of the doubt at the end of a course, when the students are known to them as individuals.

5. Regression. Students selected for special treatment on the basis of low test scores usually score higher on retesting, even if nothing happens to them between the two measurements. This phenomenon is a statistical artifact, and it works both ways--students singled out on the basis of extraordinarily high scores usually score lower on retesting.

6. Selection. An experimental group chosen by nonrandom means is likely to differ from students in general, especially if students have volunteered for the group. If an entire class is designated as the experimental group, the students in that class may not be representative because

of the characteristics that caused them to choose a certain teacher or be assigned to a certain class.

7. Mortality. Some members of the experimental group may drop out between the pretest and the posttest; the least-able students are the most likely to drop out. Thus the mean score for a group is likely to be higher after some students drop out, regardless of the effectiveness of the educational treatment.

Treatment-Related Variables. Extraneous factors that are peculiar to a specific teacher, classroom situation, or group of students are called *treatment-related variables*. These factors must be controlled or accounted for in evaluating a unit or course. The following variables might influence the test results in a particular experimental setting:

1. Interaction of testing and treatment. A course may result in high test scores only when it is preceded by some kind of pretest. Especially if students were not informed of their pretest scores, they might have assumed that they had done very poorly--an assumption that might have motivated them to study harder in the course.

2. Interaction of selection and treatment. A given course might be effective only for particular students who were selected for the pilot or experimental course. For example, suppose the pilot school is located near a major university. An American history course that works well in classes heavily loaded with faculty members' children may not work with more-typical students.

3. Reactive responses. Simply knowing that one is part of an experiment may lead to change. This phenomenon is known as the "Hawthorne effect." No matter what changes might be made in a curriculum program, test scores may go up simply because students are happy that someone cares enough about them to do an experiment.

4. Multiple treatment interference. Timing and setting can influence the effectiveness of a unit of instruction. For example, suppose the new American history course requires specially trained teachers who are available only on Tuesdays and Thursdays. Even though the course works well when it is presented for an hour twice a week, it might not work when students are exposed to it for a half-hour every day.

Designs That Yield Valid Results

Considering all the things that can go wrong, is it possible to perform any kind of valid assessment of a social studies program?

The answer is *yes*--even though the ideal evaluation design, which calls for an experimental group and a control group, is difficult to implement in a school setting. An evaluation design based on experimental and control groups will provide planners with the best possible foundation for making sound decisions about curriculum content. If it is not possible to assign students to groups at random or to use a control group at all, program planners may be forced to compromise by using one of the two quasi-experimental evaluation designs described in this subsection.

Experimental/Control Group Design. In an experimental/control group design, students are randomly selected and randomly divided into two groups. One group is given the experimental treatment (a new social studies course); the other group is given no treatment at all or a different course. Diagrammatically, the design looks like this:

$$\boxed{R}\quad \begin{array}{llll} O_1 & X & O_2 & \text{(experimental)} \\ O_1 & --- & O_2 & \text{(control)} \end{array}$$

(R = random selection and assignment; X = treatment;
--- = absence of treatment; 0 = observation)

The two groups are treated as similarly as possible (class size, type of teacher) except that one group receives the experimental course. If change (a significant difference between pretest and posttest scores) occurs in the experimental group but not in the control group, it is safe to infer that the experimental course caused the change. It is possible to make this inference because the design of the evaluation has effectively controlled the extraneous variables that might have contributed to the change. Since subjects were randomly selected and assigned to groups, the groups were equivalent to start with; one can therefore assume that the effects of maturation and history, for example, were the same on the experimental group as on the control group.

Nonrandomized Comparison Group Design. In this quasi-experimental design, students are not randomly selected or randomly assigned to groups.

This kind of evaluation design typically uses intact groups--say, 11th-grade American history classes--and assigns the groups alternative courses of study. A diagram of the design looks like this:

O_1 X O_2 (experimental)

O_1 Y O_2 (control)

The major difference (though not the only difference) between this model and the experimental/control group design is that, since students have not been selected and assigned to groups at random, the two groups in this design cannot be assumed to be equivalent. Thus the groups must be examined for differences that might affect results--for example, mean IQ, sexual makeup, socioeconomic or cultural characteristics. If the groups do not yield equivalent mean scores on the pretest, statistical procedures must be used to adjust the posttest scores accordingly.

Longitudinal Time Series Design. Another quasi-experimental evaluation procedure that may be used when control or comparison groups are not available is the time series design, which looks like this diagrammatically:

O_1 O_2 X O_3 O_4

In the time series model, the observation points (tests) can be increased to six or more to compensate for such threats to validity as history, maturation, and reactive responses. The effects of extraneous variables are estimated by comparing the results of observations O_1 and O_2. If this difference is *less* than the difference between O_2 and O_3, we can assume that the experimental program had an effect beyond that which could have been caused by other variables. However, the evaluator should be alert to the possibility that some external event might have occurred between O_2 and O_3 which was not a factor between O_1 and O_2.

Sampling

Sampling theory reflects the adage that you don't have to eat a whole pie to know how good it is. In other words, if we have information about some of the parts of a whole, we can generalize about the characteristics of the whole. In educational evaluation, sampling merely means picking a relatively small group of students that represents a larger group of students.

We must use samples when we cannot locate and test every member of a population--for example, if we want to determine the average level of social studies competence in 13-year-old children in the United States. But sampling is also useful even when it is possible to measure every student. In a school district, for example, it may be desirable to reduce the testing load on students by giving different tests to different samples of students rather than making every student take every test. Sampling should be used when it would be too expensive, too time consuming, or too inconvenient to measure every member of a population. A well-designed sample can produce results almost as accurate as those which could be obtained by testing an entire population.

Guidelines for Selecting Samples. Since the purpose of sampling is to select a small group that represents a larger one, a good sample is one that accurately reflects the balance of characteristics found in the larger population. The types of samples described below are guaranteed *not* to be representative. *Don't* use:

1. Samples of volunteers. Although it may seem reasonable and fair to ask for volunteers to take a test, people who volunteer are likely to vary in systematic ways from people who do not volunteer. For example, students who volunteer for tests are likely to be more academically oriented and cooperative than students in general, and people who are willing to fill out and send back a mailed questionnaire tend to differ in significant ways from the general population.

2. Samples of convenience. As the term implies, a sample of convenience is chosen because it is easy to assemble--for example, students in the school where one's office happens to be located. (The ultimate sample of convenience would be one's own children.) While a sample of convenience may turn out to be representative, don't count on it.

3. Samples from a nonrepresentative base. One classic example of sampling from a nonrepresentative base was the selection of names from a telephone book for a presidential election poll. Though the sample selected was representative of people listed in the telephone directory,

the election results showed that people in the telephone directory were not representative of the electorate. Similarly, a sample of students who had taken a college board achievement test would not accurately represent students in general.

There are at least two good kinds of samples: random and stratified random. Here is a brief discussion of each:

1. Random samples. In a random sample, every member of the larger group has an equal chance of being included in the sample. For example, if you wanted a random sample of all high school seniors in your school district, you could write each of their names on a separate slip of paper, throw all the slips into a box, and pick out names with your eyes shut. In this computerized age it may be quicker to get a random sample of students by numbering their names and using a Table of Random Numbers (found in almost any statistics book) to select a list of numbered names. Some relatively inexpensive manual calculators will produce random numbers at the push of a button. It is important to note that some *mechanical* process (drawing slips of paper from a hat, rolling dice, flipping a coin, using random number tables) must be used to obtain a random sample--don't rely on human judgment.

2. Stratified random samples. If you know some of the characteristics of the larger group that you want to measure, you can use a stratified random sample. The kinds of strata usually of interest in education are sex, race, ethnic background, and socioeconomic status. If you know, for example, that 30 percent of the larger group is black, 10 percent Asian, and 60 percent Caucasian, you can ensure that your sample has the same racial balance by taking a random sample of each stratum.

Sample Size. While representativeness is the most important aspect of sampling, size is an important consideration to the evaluator. The size of the sample will determine, in large part, the time and money that will need to be expanded on an evaluation project. Unfortunately, there is no simple answer to the question "How large should a sample be?" However, we offer the following suggestions:

1. Use as large a sample as possible. The larger the sample, the more likely it is to represent the population.

2. If you want to make generalizations about the population from which a sample came, include at least 30 subjects in the sample. Choosing a sample of this size will allow you to use statistical techniques with reasonable accuracy.

3. If you wish to describe a population on the basis of several characteristics (weight, height, lefthandedness, grade-point average), sample from 10 to 20 percent of the population.

4. Remember that the size of the sample will not compensate for faulty sampling techniques. *Randomness* is the key to sampling.

Sampling Error. Even if you have selected your sample carefully, whenever you use the results gleaned from sampling to make statements about a whole group you are in danger of being slightly inaccurate. It is unlikely that a random sample will yield *exactly* the same results as those that could be obtained from the whole group. In fact, each random sample of a group is likely to be a little bit different. You must allow for what is called *sampling error*--error caused purely by chance when you use a random sample to represent an entire population. (Sampling error is different from *bias* (systematic error), which occurs when a sample is not drawn at random from the population.) Although sophisticated statistical techniques are available for calculating sampling error, program planners need only be aware that no sample, even if it is randomly drawn, can be expected to perfectly mirror the characteristics of a population. An evaluation specialist can calculate how big the error is likely to be and help planners devise appropriate statements about the whole group on the basis of the size of the sampling error.

Variability. Variability is the degree of dispersion, or "spread," of a set of scores. Even when two sets of ten test scores have exactly the same mean score, they may contain entirely different individual scores; the two means are the same only because of the variability of the scores. In other words, the fact that two groups had the same average score on a test does not indicate that individuals in the two groups had equivalent scores. To illustrate this point, suppose two classes of eighth-graders are given a ten-point quiz. There are ten students in each class. The scores for each class look like this:

Class 1 Scores	Class 2 Scores
2	0
2	0
3	1
3	1
4	2
4	2
5	8
5	8
6	9
6	9
sum 40	sum 40

Mean for Class 1

$$\frac{40 \text{ (sum)}}{10 \text{ (scores)}} = 4$$

Mean for Class 2

$$\frac{40 \text{ (sum)}}{10 \text{ (scores)}} = 4$$

From a look at the mean (average) scores of both classes, we might conclude that they performed exactly the same. But did the individual members of the classes perform equally? Look at the scores again. The scores for Class 1 are generally closer to the mean than the scores for Class 2. That is, the scores for Class 1 are not as "spread out," or variable, as the scores for Class 2. We need to be aware of the factor of variability whether we are analyzing one set of data or comparing two sets of data.

Reporting Results

Program planners should keep a number of things in mind when they prepare to report the results of an evaluation to colleagues, students, administrators, school board members, and the general public. Here are four suggestions:

1. Clearly explain the purpose of the evaluation. (For example, "to find out whether students at the 11th-grade level learn more history through the inquiry method than through traditional teaching methods.")

2. Present the facts. (How many students participated? What grade level(s)? What was the nature of the new course? How was the pilot program conducted? Was there a control group? What testing procedure was used?)

3. Present the summary results in language that an intelligent lay person can understand. ("The evidence shows that students learn more when the inquiry method is used.")

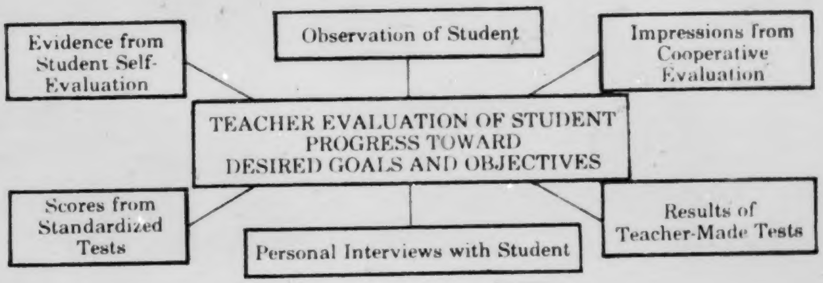
4. Spell out the implications of the evaluation results for your school or district. ("If we are to adopt this new course for the school district, we will have to do the following: . . .")

Evaluating Student Performance

Although tests are the instruments most commonly used for evaluating the performance of individual students, they are not necessarily the most important or the most useful in determining individual or group mastery of instructional goals and objectives. As the chart in Figure 2 shows, a broad conception of evaluation should be a major goal of all teachers.

Figure 2

EVALUATION CHART


Evidence from Student Self-Evaluation
Observation of Student
Impressions from Cooperative Evaluation
TEACHER EVALUATION OF STUDENT PROGRESS TOWARD DESIRED GOALS AND OBJECTIVES
Scores from Standardized Tests
Personal Interviews with Student
Results of Teacher-Made Tests

The chart shows an evaluation program that is based on:

1. Direct student observation.
2. Cooperative evaluation by teacher and student.
3. Results of teacher-made tests.
4. Personal interviews with the student.
5. Scores from standardized tests.
6. Data from student self-evaluation.

A comprehensive student evaluation program gives a teacher viable tools for assessing students' progress toward desired understandings, attitudes, skills, and behaviors.

Student evaluation is pointless unless it is directed toward assessing progress toward goals defined by objectives. All too frequently goals and objectives in social studies, as in other content areas, are stated by educators and then forgotten. Teachers and administrators know that statements of goals, no matter how lucid and appropriate, remain statements on paper until they are made operational in the lessons children learn and through the opportunities provided students for practicing what they have learned.

Evaluation is useful in the formulation and modification of goals, objectives, and instructional procedures. Evaluation also functions as a feedback mechanism to the educational community. This process is helped by the use of instructional objectives (see Section 5).

Using Instructional Objectives

Instructional objectives, which identify the specific student behavior sought, are of special value to teachers in selecting and evaluating learning experiences. An instructional objective should consist of three parts: (1) a statement of what the student will do (construct, write, cite, etc.), (2) a definition of important conditions (restrictions and limitations), and (3) criterion of acceptable performance (five out of ten, etc.).

The following specific instructional objectives illustrate the characteristics that make them important to the process of evaluation:

1. Given a list of twenty foods, the student will identify five kinds of food eaten by the early Tejas Indian.

2. The student will be able to name three distinct kinds of climates found in Texas and point out their general geographical areas on a large map of Texas.

3. Given a list of factors leading to significant historical events, the student will be able to select at least five factors contributing to the depression of 1929.

4. After completing a reading selection on the American Indian, the student will be able to describe, orally or in writing, problems encountered in our society by such minority groups as the American Indian.

Social studies classroom teachers generally work with two kinds of instructional objectives: (1) those applicable to a given unit of work or to a year-long or semester course and (2) those written for an individual lesson (these designate detailed and specific daily objectives to be achieved by the learner).

If teachers can take related objectives, identify them, and group them under appropriate headings, these objectives become more manageable, useful, and valuable as means of improving content, instruction, and evaluation.

A taxonomy of educational objectives developed by Benjamin Bloom and his associates, covering both cognitive and affective domains, offers one classification system of objectives (Bloom et al. 1971). This particular taxonomy classifies educational objectives in terms of the behavior of the learners. The importance of the taxonomy for social studies educators is that it illustrates the hierarchical nature of intellectual behavior, helps identify specific learner outcomes, and underscores the fact that neither instruction nor evaluation should deal exclusively with factual details. The classes of behavior are arranged in hierarchical order and include broad categories of behavior: (1) cognitive (dealing with knowledge and skills), (2) affective (dealing with values and attitudes), and (3) psychomotor (dealing with motor acts and developing skills). Some examples of the objectives in Bloom's taxonomy are presented in Figure 3.

Identifying the Skills to Be Evaluated

Social studies educators must be aware of the role of social studies skills as they work with students day to day and as they help prepare students to be active participants in evaluating their own educational progress. The following skills are an essential part of any social studies program and basic to the teaching/learning process.

Study and Research. These skills are invaluable if students are to make efficient and wise use of resources in fact-gathering activities. Examples of study and research skills include the ability to (1) locate and gather information, (2) do critical reading, writing, discussing, and listening, (3) select relevant and accurate information, and (4) organize information around a significant problem.

Problem Solving. These skills are essential in the development of units of study. Examples of these skills include the ability to (1) recognize a problem area, (2) identify specific problems within the area, (3) formulate a hypothesis, (4) gather data to support, refine, or reject the hypothesis, (5) draw conclusions, and (6) apply conclusions to current and future problems.

Figure 3

TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

(Cognitive Domain)

Class of Behavior	Definition	Example
Knowledge	Recalls or recognizes information. Has knowledge of major ideas.	What is the name of the capital of the United States?
Translation	Changes information into a different symbolic form or language. Interprets communications into major ideas and their interrelationships.	You have read and discussed the Declaration of Independence and its importance to events today. Write the second sentence of the Declaration of Independence in your own words.
Interpretation	Discovers relationships among facts, generalizations, definitions, values, and skills. Finds the relationships among the parts of the subject matter being studied.	We have been studying the term *monopoly*. Write a paragraph on each of the following, telling the extent to which each is a monopoly in our community: 1. Garbage collection 2. Barbering service 3. Moving-picture entertainment 4. Hospital care
Synthesis	Solves a problem that requires original, creative thinking. Has ability to create, describe, theorize, discover, or devise tests of hypotheses in creating an original product.	We have been studying the events that surrounded the Boston Massacre. Write a paragraph telling what each of these people might have said when they heard the news of the Boston Massacre: 1. A Tory 2. A member of the Sons of Liberty 3. A British soldier
Evaluation	Makes judgments toward some end about the value of ideas, methods, or materials. Has ability to apply internal, external, comparative, and aesthetic standards as criteria in solving problems.	We have been studying about the increasing number of women who are entering the job market. If the husband of a family earns a living wage, is it fair for the wife to seek employment? Support your answer.

Critical Thinking. These skills are extremely important in the problem-solving process. Examples include being able to (1) evaluate sources of data, (2) interpret and synthesize data from a variety of sources and experiences, (3) base conclusions on data, and (4) change conclusions as new data are found.

Group Process. These skills are an essential component for the learner. Examples are having the ability to do (1) cooperative planning, (2) group work, (3) reporting and discussion of data, and (4) evaluation (of group and self).

Testing in the Evaluation Process

Testing is a component of evaluation which involves the use of a particular grouping of instruments and/or procedures. An evaluation program requires well-conceived and well-developed tests. As most social studies educators know, preparing such tests is not a simple task. To prepare tests, social studies educators must have (1) some knowledge of the mechanics of test design, (2) comprehension of the various types of tests, (3) understanding of the several types of questions by format, and (4) competence in writing both cognitive and affective questions.

One of the key concepts that social studies educators must remember is that students should be offered a wide variety of test situations. There should not be complete dependence on the paper-and-pencil test as a means of evaluating the objectives of the course. Some testing situations are (1) administering paper-and-pencil quizzes (essay questions, short-answer questions, true-false questions, multiple-choice questions), (2) asking students to manipulate apparatus in one way or another (such as using a globe to locate a river), (3) having students role-play a historical situation or portray their interpretations of an event, (4) requiring students to construct items (such as a model of a railway station or small town) to achieve an objective, and (5) presenting questions through all forms of media (the printed page, films, filmstrips, tape recorders, oral instructions, physical gestures, or any combination of these).

The use of many types of test situations can improve the evaluation process and expand the repertoire of learning experiences or activities that social studies teachers can use to evoke observable reactions in students. Asking a student to paint a picture, solve a complex problem, argue the merits of a position, provide data to support an opinion, or plan and execute an experiment--all these constitute test situations.

Role of Testing in the Instructional Program

All tests, but particularly teacher-made classroom tests, have an obvious relationship to the purposes and content of instruction. They also bear a subtle and covert relationship to students' perceptions of the purposes and content of instruction. To the extent that teachers' actions and decisions are based on tests, testing may provide the most valid information possible about the real purposes and content of instruction.

A classroom test can be more than a means of measurement and evaluation: it can motivate and it can teach. By challenging students' intellects or stimulating their imaginations, a test can make a subject more meaningful or interesting. By requiring that students think about things in a new way or use previously acquired knowledge to solve unfamiliar problems, a test can give students more appreciation for and understanding of the subject. Because a test is one criterion for assessing a student's achievement, it represents to the student direct, material evidence of what has been defined as achievement.

Because classroom tests are likely to measure only what they are constructed to measure, allotting sufficient time to planning a test is essential. Here are some questions that teachers should ask themselves before constructing a test.

1. Why is the test being given?
2. What will be learned from it about each student, the class, the course, and the curriculum?
3. How does the test fit into the total evaluation program for this course?
4. How is the test related to the goals of instruction?
5. Which objectives will be measured by this test?
6. How much weight will be given in the test to each of the objectives that are to be measured?
7. How will these weights correspond to the relative importance of the objectives in this course?

8. Which questions will be related to which objectives?

9. What level of performance will be expected of the students?

10. Is this test a mastery test?

11. What response to each question will be expected of the typical student?

12. How are the expected responses related to what the students have been expected to learn?

The teacher's answers to these questions will determine, in large measure, both the character of the test to be developed and the validity and reliability of the test results--particularly the validity. At the planning stage of test construction, many decisions are made that will determine the nature and the worth of the information that is eventually obtained.

A well-planned test can (1) serve as a vehicle for assisting in determining students' grades, (2) determine the effectiveness of student learning, (3) provide both teacher and students with information relating to their attitudes and feelings toward some aspect of social studies content or experience, (4) provide students with situations which will enable them to "practice" a particular intellectual behavior related to some aspect of social studies, (5) assess which aspects of the social studies curriculum are useful for the student, (6) obtain data about the quality of the learning environment for producing particular types of learning, (7) assess whether students have learned a particular list grouping of information, a process, an attitude, a value, or a skill, (8) provide diagnostic information about the level of understanding students possess prior to investigating a unit or to entering a class in social studies, and (9) provide information for planning specific directions of study in a unit or topic.

Determining the Test Content

The first step in the construction of any test should be to review the instructional objectives of the course or unit. Reviewing objectives will both reduce the number of unrelated items and ensure that some objectives are not overemphasized to the neglect of others. It is important to carefully delineate the subject matter and make sure that the test concentrates on items that require the student to demonstrate essential skills, understanding, and knowledge. Generally, if some procedure of this sort is not used, test item development will be haphazard and test results will provide inappropriate feedback for planning further instruction.

A test should be thought of in terms of both its content and the kinds of responses that the test items are likely to evoke from students.

A table of specifications (see Tables 3 and 4) can be used to determine whether the test will measure a representative sample of instructional objectives and content. In this kind of table, the instructional objectives are typically listed across the top and the content areas are listed down the left side. After the table has been completed, each objective and area of content included in the test can be reviewed by the teacher in terms of its relative importance to the subject matter and amount of instructional time. In Table 3, which gives specifications for a hypothetical test in United States history, numbers are placed in the blocks to indicate how many test items should be allotted to each objective and area of content.

As a rule of thumb, it is desirable to include at least ten test items for each specific instructional objective and for each instructional objective content area. However, fewer items may suffice if (1) the area to be tested has been limited or (2) the learning outcomes to be measured have been clearly defined. The more items used, the more dependable the results--and the more useful the data for diagnostic purposes.

Table 4 shows another kind of table that can be used to measure representation of content and instructional objectives. In this case the teacher decided that 40 percent of the test should be concerned with the recall of factual information, 30 percent with important skills, and 30 percent with the use of critical-thinking abilities. The numbers on the horizontal bars indicate the content areas to which these instructional objectives are related.

Types of Tests

Once the test has been reviewed for balance of content, the teacher must decide what type of test to use. Three kinds of tests are appropriate for evaluating student performance in the social studies: (1) the norm-referenced achievement test, (2) the criterion-referenced test, and (3) the informal teacher-constructed or "home-made" test.

Table 3

TABLE OF SPECIFICATIONS (A)

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES / CONTENT AREAS	KNOWLEDGE	TRANSLATION	INTERPRETATION	APPLICATION	ANALYSIS	SYNTHESIS	EVALUATION	TOTAL ITEMS
PRE-REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD	3		1					4
THE REVOLUTION	4	1			5		1	11
THE CONSTITUTION			2	3		1	1	7
WESTWARD EXPANSION	1	1		2	1	2		7
THE CIVIL WAR	3	1			2	1	1	8
RECONSTRUCTION	4		1		1		1	7
TOTAL ITEMS	15	3	4	5	9	4	4	44

Table 4

TABLE OF SPECIFICATIONS (B)

CONTENT	BEHAVIOR			TOTAL	
	Factual Information	Skills	Critical Thinking Abilities	Percentage	Number of Items
Colonial Period	10	7	7	16	24
Westward Expansion Period	12	8	7	18	27
Civil War	15	10	11	24	36
Late Nineteenth Century and The Rise of Industrialism	10	9	8	18	27
Twentieth Century	13	11	12	24	36
TOTAL					
Percentage	40	30	30	100	
No. of Items	60	45	45		150

Norm-Referenced Tests. These have been standardized by administration to thousands of students, whose scores become the "norms." By referring to a table of appropriate norms furnished by the test publisher, the teacher can convert a student's raw score to a figure that shows how the student stands *in relation to the performance of others.* The conversion may be in terms of percentiles (a percentile score of 74 means that a student's score is better than the scores of 74 percent of the students whose scores were used as the norms) or it may be stated in terms of grade-equivalent scores (a grade-equivalent score of 4.2 means that a student's performance is comparable to that of an average student who is in the second month of the fourth grade).

Norm-referenced tests are designed (1) with a generalized approach to content, (2) for measuring group achievement, not individual mastery, and (3) to show a student's relationship to a group, not his or her mastery of a goal of instruction. Norm-referenced tests are helpful for determining whether a student made greater progress last year than this year; whether a student is progressing at all; and whether, in relation to other children the same age, the student is well informed and well equipped or poorly informed and poorly equipped.

Criterion-Referenced Tests. Sometimes called mastery or prescriptive tests, these are designed to evaluate a student's progress toward specific objectives. They measure degree of mastery, which is often computed as the percentage of correct items. The incorrect items indicate what additional instruction is needed to bring about complete mastery.

Criterion-referenced tests are designed to (1) measure an individual student's progress toward specific goals, (2) indicate the effectiveness of a given program for an individual learner, and (3) monitor the progress of an instructional program toward achieving its objectives by viewing the mastery of the objectives by individual students.

The major difference between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests is that the former focus on the scores achieved by a large number of students, while the latter focus on individual students' mastery of specific segments of the subject or ability to perform specific skills.

Informal Teacher-Constructed Tests. These tests are commonly used by social studies teachers. Whether they involve simple recall of information (by requiring students to complete sentences or fill in blanks) or recognition (true-false, multiple-choice, or matching varieties), there is no reason why teacher-constructed tests cannot be criterion-referenced tests. To conform to the requirements of criterion testing, each question or test item should be related in a significant way to the specific subject areas or skills that constitute the objectives of the unit. The use of a content outline or a table of specifications will help a teacher avoid cluttering the test with questions about trivial or inconsequential information.

Social studies teachers can derive more information from testing if they create tests that measure not only factual knowledge but also mastery of the instructional objectives, strategies, and materials employed by the teacher to achieve the objectives of the unit or course.

Improvement of Testing Tools

All teachers evaluate the efforts and progress of their students as a regular part of their work. But many are dissatisfied with the quality and usefulness of the appraisals they make. Teachers are continually reviewing the role that instructional objectives play in improving written tests. Many educators feel a test should possess the following characteristics:

1. Clarity--trivia and ambiguity must be avoided.
2. Consistency--test items and responses should be worded in the same form throughout the test.
3. Accuracy--the desired answers should be the correct ones, and the distractors (wrong answers) should indeed distract.
4. Avoidance of racial, socioeconomic, religious, or sexual bias--all the knowledge and skills needed to answer the questions correctly should have been taught in the unit or course.
5. Emphasis on skills and concepts--the test items should be written to sample adequately each specific learning outcome.
6. Emphasis on content and methodology--the test items should be written to measure student mastery of the content and instructional strategies covered in the course.

Social studies teachers should remember that tests are one of the surest means that students have for uncovering the "hidden agenda" of a course--discovering what teachers regard as important. Therefore, the questions teachers select for inclusion in a test become very important in the evaluation process.

Constructing a Short-Answer Test. The short-answer form is characterized by the presence of a blank on which the student writes the kind of answer called for by the directions. Three varieties of the short-answer form are:

1. The question variety.
   Who invented the cotton gin? (___Eli Whitney___)
2. The completion variety.
   The explorers of the Louisiana Territory were
   (___Lewis and Clark___).
3. The identification or association variety.
   After each major city write the state in which it
   is located.
   New Orleans (___Louisiana___)
   San Antonio (___Texas___)
   Atlanta (___Georgia___)

Short-answer items are primarily useful for measuring knowledge of factual information; they are not easily adaptable to measuring understanding and application. They are more likely to measure whether students remember the statement as it appeared in the text than whether they comprehend the information.

Teachers should use the following guidelines for constructing short-answer items:

1. State the item so that the answer is limited to a word or brief phrase.

2. Explicitly state and qualify the item so that only one response is correct.

   When did the war between the States end? (___1865___)

   Other possible answers to this question are: "in the 1860s," "when Lee surrendered to Grant," etc.--these answers are correct, but the teacher expected the answer "1865". A better way of writing the item is: (___1865___) is the year that Lee surrendered to Grant, ending the war between the States.

3. Use terms that will have the same meaning to all students.

4. Make the sentence structure as simple as possible, so that the question will be clear to all students.

5. Ask only for important information.

6. Make all answer blanks equal in length.

7. Don't include questions that have more than one correct answer.

8. Don't use questions verbatim from the textbook or lecture notes.

Constructing a Multiple-Choice Test. A multiple-choice test item consists of a *stem*, stated in question or incomplete statement form, and several possible answers. The incorrect alternatives are called *distractors* because their function is to distract students who have not achieved the specific learning outcome being measured by the item.

Some varieties of the multiple-choice form are:

1. The correct-answer variety.

   Who invented the sewing machine? (__b__)

   (a) Singer (c) Whitney
   (b) Howe (d) Fulton

2. The best-answer variety.

   What was the basic purpose of the Marshall Plan?

   (__b__)

   (a) Military defense of Western Europe
   (b) Reestablishment of business and industry in Western Europe
   (c) Settlement of differences with Russia
   (d) Direct help to the hungry and homeless in Europe

(It is important to remember that the difference between best-answer and correct-answer items is more one of topic than of form. The name of the inventor of the sewing machine is recorded in history beyond question or doubt. The purposes of the Marshall Plan cannot be stated with such precision.)

3. The multiple-response variety.

   Which of the following are examples of an ethnic group?

   (__b,d__)

   (a) Southerners (c) Texans
   (b) Italian Americans (d) Anglo Americans

4. The incomplete-statement variety.

   The predominate religion in colonial New England was

   (__d__)

   (a) Anglican (d) Congregational
   (b) Lutheran (e) Baptist
   (c) Quaker

5. The negative variety.

   Dictatorships do *not* accept the principle that (a) might makes right, (b) strict censorship is necessary, (c) the state exists for the individual, (d) one political party should be supreme. (__c__)

A multiple-choice test is useful for measuring knowledge, understanding, and application. Because of its versatility, it is the most widely used of the objective-type tests. (For more information about the classification of objective items, see "The Objective Test Item" in Berg 1965.)

Use the following guidelines in constructing multiple-choice items:

1. Write a stem that presents a single, definite problem.

2. Keep the reading level low (avoid wordiness, technical terminology, and complex sentence structure).

3. Make sure the questions are concise, unambiguous, and grammatically correct.

4. Use questions that are germane to the area being measured.

5. Keep the alternatives brief, similar in form, and grammatically congruent with the stem.

6. Avoid giving clues to the correct answer (verbal associations, textbook language, length of alternatives).

7. Provide about the same number of alternative responses for each question.

8. Avoid the phrases "none of the above" and "all of the above," if possible.

9. Review each completed item for clarity and for relevance to the specific learning outcome to be measured.

10. Don't mix conflicting frames of reference within a single item.

11. Don't provide superfluous information.

12. Avoide using a pattern in the rotation of correct responses (for example, the correct answer to every fourth item is "E").

Constructing a True-False Test. The true-false test may hold the questionable distinction of being both the most popular type of test with classroom teachers and the most criticized regarding its construction and the significance of what it apparently measures. When constructing a true-false test, a teacher should be aware of its weaknesses as well as its strengths.

Some of the major weaknesses of the true-false test are:

1. Students have a 50/50 chance of answering correctly simply by guessing. Thus it is difficult for a teacher to determine whether objectives have actually been mastered.

2. True-false items do not provide diagnostic information. An item may have been correctly marked on the basis of misinformation or incorrectly

marked because the student misread or misinterpreted the question. For example:

(F) Abraham Lincoln was the first president of the United States.

A student who remembers that Abraham Lincoln was the first *Republican* president might mark the item true.

The strengths of the true-false test are:

1. It may be rapidly and accurately scored.

2. The scoring is completely objective--such extraneous factors as the student's dress, neatness, politeness, and writing style have no influence on the teacher's scoring.

3. It can be administered relatively quickly, since less time per item is required in scoring.

4. It can be relatively quickly constructed and refined.

5. The structure is simple.

6. It is useful for review and discussion purposes.

Before developing a true-false test, a teacher should carefully consider the limitations of this format and select instructional objectives that are amenable to measurement by this type of test. True-false tests are most useful in situations where measurement of the acquisition of factual, noninterpretative information is desired--for example, vocabulary, technical terms, dates, and proper names.

Use the following guidelines in constructing true-false test items:

1. Write statements that can be unquestionably judged as true or false (avoid partly true statements).

2. Keep the reading level low (avoid vague terms and complex sentence structure).

3. Write concise, unambiguous, grammatically correct statements.

4. Use statements that are germane to the area being tested.

5. Avoid negative statements.

6. Avoid using specific determiners (always, never, sometimes, maybe).

7. Keep the true and false statements approximately equal in length and number.

8. Don't use unnecessary words and phrases or include more than one theme in each item.

9. Avoid creating a pattern in the order of the responses (every other statement false).

10. Don't lift statements directly from the textbook or class notes.

Constructing a Matching Test. A matching test is a specialized form of the multiple-choice test in which a set of related stems (premises) must be paired with a set of alternative answers. An example of this type of item is:

> Directions: On the line to the left of each statement in column 1, write the letter from column 2 with which the item is correctly associated.
>
> Column 1
>
> 1. (C) This victory was a major factor in obtaining the alliance between France and the 13 colonies.
> 2. (E) After Washington's retreat from New York, this victory renewed hope in the American cause.
> 3. (B) For this victory, Washington's troops surrounded the enemy by land and French ships cut off help from the sea.
>
> Column 2
>
> A. Bunker Hill
> B. Yorktown
> C. Saratoga
> D. Monmouth
> E. Trenton

The strengths of matching items are:

1. They may be used to measure the lower levels of the cognitive domain. Vocabulary, dates, events, and simple relationships can be efficiently and effectively measured.

2. They are particularly adaptable to "who, what, when, or where" situations.

3. Higher levels of the cognitive domain can be developed when qualified material is presented and the matching exercise is based on this material.

4. They can be scored rapidly, accurately, and objectively, even by individuals who are unqualified to teach in the subject area being examined.

The weaknesses of the matching type of items are:

1. They are not particularly applicable to measurement of the higher levels of the cognitive domain.

2. The items of a set are interdependent. How the student responds to one premise of a set influences the responses to all other premises.

3. It is difficult to construct homogeneous premises--the first prerequisite for a set of matching items to function properly. For example:

The following items refer to the pre-Revolutionary period in United States history (1763-1775). Match the information given in column 1 with the appropriate information given in column 2. An answer may be used only once.

		Column 1		Column 2
1.	(B)	Regulated colonial trade	A.	Parliament
2.	(C)	Frontier closed by proclamation	B.	Navigation Acts
3.	(A)	English legislative body	C.	1763
4.	(F)	British troops raided Lexington and Concord	D.	Stamp Act
			E.	1768
5.	(D)	Taxed newspapers, legal papers, calendars	F.	1775

A weakness in this example is the attempt to use premises that are not homogeneous. Furthermore, the introductory statement was ambiguous. The student knows that all the items are related to the period 1763 to 1775. The use of heterogeneous items gives too many clues to the student. For example, without any knowledge of British government, item 3 could be correctly answered. Alternatives A, C, E, and F would likely be eliminated from consideration for items 1, 2, and 5, and item 4 is likely to be answered by one of three alternates (C, E, F).

If social studies teachers keep instructional objectives in mind when preparing matching exercises, and if the items chosen are appropriate to the purpose of the test (mastery), the matching exercise should be valid.

Use the following guidelines in constructing a matching test:

1. Establish a frame of reference for answering the test items.
2. Establish a general orientation in the introductory statement.
3. Write clear directions explaining the basis for matching and indicating whether the responses may be used more than once.
4. Be clear and concise and use correct grammar.
5. Use homogeneous premises.
6. Don't provide superfluous information or use unnecessary technical terminology.

Constructing an Essay Test. An essay test requires the student to read a question or problem, think about it, and then write a response. Essay questions require the student to (1) make comparisons, (2) supply definitions, (3) make interpretations, (4) make evaluations, and (5) explain relationships.

An essay test can be used to assess a student's higher-order mental processes: application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. An essay test can also measure the student's ability to select and organize ideas in writing. The format has the following limitations:

1. It allows the student too much leeway in answering questions.

2. It may not cover all the content and objectives deemed important by the teacher.

3. It is time consuming to score.

4. It lends itself to subjective grading or measurement.

Use the following guidelines in constructing an essay test:

1. Think carefully about what you want to accomplish with the test.

2. Consider the background and ability of the group to be tested.

3. Identify the instructional objectives to be measured.

4. Make sure that the content of the question is related to an important objective of instruction that can be defined in terms of expected student behavior.

5. Design the format of the question so that it is appropriate to its purpose and content.

6. Summarize or outline the desired student response to each question so that you will have a key for scoring acceptable answers.

7. Explain the ground rules to all students, so that they can plan and organize their time.

Deciding Which Type of Test to Use. The following guidelines emphasize the importance of selecting test items that will directly measure each learning outcome and instructional objective:

1. Use a *short-answer* test when the desired student behavior is to define, name, or describe something.

2. Use *multiple-choice* items when the desired student behavior is to identify something, distinguish between two categories of things, or match things that are related in some way.

3. Use *true-false* items when the desired student behavior is to distinguish between fact and opinion and between correct and incorrect procedures (when there are only two possible alternatives).

4. Use a *matching* test when the desired student behavior is to relate things (dates and events, authors and books, instruments and uses) to one another.

5. Use an *essay* test when the desired student behavior is to analyze, synthesize, evaluate, and organize ideas.

Validity and Reliability in Testing

Before using test information, a teacher should feel confident that the test has measured some specific student performance. Furthermore, the test results must be relevant to the uses the teacher intends to make of this information. These factors are known as *validity* and *reliability*.

Validity is the degree to which the test measured what the teacher wanted the test to measure. A classroom test should be relevant to instructional objectives.

Reliability is the degree of consistency among test scores. A test is reliable when students who obtain high scores on one set of test items also obtain high scores on other sets of presumably equivalent items, and when those who obtain low scores on one set of items also obtain low scores on other sets of similar items.

After a teacher constructs a test, there are several things that need to be done before the test is administered to students. First, the teacher should allow another teacher to review the test in order to determine whether the test items sample the objectives and subject-matter content. Once the test has been examined by another professional, the next step is to check the test against a set of established criteria. The checklist in Handout 20, based on the work of Norman Gronlund (1973), would be useful in evaluating a classroom test.

Using Evaluative Data to Improve Performance

Providing Feedback to the Student. After a teacher evaluates a student's performance, the results must be communicated to the student. This step requires some preparation if it is to produce useful results. Before attempting to provide feedback to a student, a teacher should do four things:

1. Estimate what kinds of results will be most likely to facilitate learning.

2. Decide which evaluation information the student can understand and use.

3. Plan the sequence of presentation.

4. Present the results to the student, together with any necessary explanation.

This feedback process is often referred to as *cooperative evaluation*. It is a process by which teachers and students critically examine their work together and make judgments about its strengths and weaknesses. Feedback may involve conveying the following information to the student:

1. The extent to which the student has attained various objectives.
2. The student's aptitudes and abilities as they are related to approaching learning tasks.
3. Behavior patterns or characteristics that affect learning, such as study habits and perseverance.

The feedback process may convey the following kinds of information to the teacher:

1. The student's success in learning specific content.
2. The aspects of the social studies curriculum that are most useful for the student.
3. The quality of the learning environment.
4. The extent to which a student has learned certain information or developed an attitude or a skill.
5. The level of understanding a student possesses before beginning a unit or class in social studies.
6. The most productive ways of guiding the direction of investigation or planning the specific directions of study in a unit.

During the feedback process, the teacher and the student can identify areas where the student needs help and arrange experiences to meet the student's needs. Because new social studies experiences are built on previous experiences, teacher evaluation gives direction to plans for future learning activities. Teacher evaluation also reveals objective evidence that can be shared with parents. Here are some examples of items that might be contained in a teacher's grade book or a student's folder for evaluation purposes:

1. Review of the student's notes on films, field trips, etc.
2. Selected workbook exercises.
3. Selected classroom exercises, such as graphs, time lines, and drawings or paintings that summarize social studies experiences or illustrate ideas.

4. Logs of social studies reading, committee work, and special work assignments.

5. Special maps.

6. Written essays.

7. Test papers.

In scheduled conferences, teacher and parents should study test results, anecdotal records, check lists, and samples of a student's work to look for evidence of interest, initiative, creativity, problems, and needs. The teacher can discuss with parents the extent and quality of the student's knowledge of useful social studies information and ability to use various social studies skills. When the teacher can give parents firsthand evidence of a student's performance and achievement in an area of learning, parents can be more objective in evaluating their child's growth, and they are likely to acquire a keener insight into the objectives of the social studies program.

The importance of evaluation and feedback in social studies goes beyond teacher-student evaluation of stated objectives and shared feedback; it extends to other important aspects of social studies--to progress toward the student's development of new understandings, attitudes, behaviors, and skills; to selection of further experiences to meet identified needs; to accumulation of evaluative data to be shared with parents; and to development of the social studies curriculum on a long-range basis.

References and Additional Resources

(See page 11 for information about how to obtain ERIC documents, which are identified by ED numbers.)

Berg, Harry D., ed. *Evaluation in Social Studies*. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1965.
The book, a useful reference source for evaluation in the social studies, contains general information on evaluation as well as specific suggestions for evaluating social studies instruction.

Bloom, Benjamin S., et al. *Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971.
Part 1 of this 900-page compendium is a thoughtful and well-written explication of the importance of defining educational objectives in operational terms, the value of such objectives, and different approaches to defining objectives in various subject matter areas. Part 2 summarizes evaluation studies and strategies from the perspectives of 11 different authors.

Brown, Lena B., ed. "Testing in the Social Studies: Practical Ideas for Classroom Teachers." *Social Education* 40, no. 7 (November/December 1976), pp. 503-541.
Most of this issue of *Social Education* is devoted to testing. The articles focus on test preparation in American and world history, political science, and economics. Other areas covered are standardized testing and designing tests with multiethnic components.

Buros, Oscar K., ed. *Mental Measurements Yearbook,* 7th ed. Highland Park, N.J.: Gryphon Press, 1972.
The *Mental Measurements Yearbooks* are compendia of reviews of published tests in the fields of education, intelligence, personality, reading, speech and hearing, and such subject areas as foreign languages, mathematics, science, social studies, English, and fine arts. The objectives of the editor are to present critical test reviews by subject specialists and to provide bibliographies of references on the construction, use, and validity of specific tests.

Campbell, Donald T., and Julian C. Stanley. *Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research.* Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963.

This is the classic work on experimental design. The book includes an extensive discussion of threats to validity and explains the advantages and disadvantages of various specific designs.

Ellis, Arthur, and Janet Alleman-Brooks. "How to Evaluate Problem-Solving-Oriented Social Studies." *Social Studies* 68, no. 3 (May/June 1977), pp. 99-103.

This article presents several examples illustrating methods of unobtrusively evaluating outcomes of problem-solving-oriented social studies learning. Such evaluation techniques as observation, interviewing, checklists, and self-awareness exercises are explained.

Gronlund, Norman E. *Preparing Criterion-Referenced Tests for Classroom Instruction.* New York: Macmillan, 1973.

This book discusses steps and procedures for the preparation of criterion-referenced tests. It offers specific suggestions for constructing items and using tests to evaluate instruction.

Sanders, Norris M. *Classroom Questions: What Kind?* New York: Harper and Row, 1966.

Sanders provides useful suggestions for asking questions that follow the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Bloom 1956). Among them are questions related to memory, translation, interpretation, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The book contains a rich source of questions related to the social studies.

Superka, Douglas P., Alice Vigliani, and Judith Hedstrom. *Social Studies Evaluation Sourcebook.* Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1978.

The purpose of the *Sourcebook* is to help school personnel locate and select instruments for evaluating various aspects of social studies education. Analyses of approximately 300 evaluation instruments related to social studies education are organized into five content areas: cognitive knowledge, cognitive processes, student attitudes, psychological and social characteristics, and educational environment.

Thorndike, R.L., and E. Hagen. *Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education,* 3rd ed. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1969. One of the best basic texts on tests and measurement, this book would be useful for any teacher, administrator, or curriculum developer.

Wiley, Karen B., and Douglas Superka. *Evaluation Studies on "New Social Studies" Materials.* Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1976.
A compilation and annotation of all available research on the "new social studies" materials developed in the projects of the 1960s and 1970s, this book is a useful source of ideas for testing innovative social studies programs.

Worthen, Blaine, and James Sanders. *Educational Evaluation: Theory and Practice.* Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones, 1973.
This book contains some of the best-known and most important articles written in the field in addition to comparisons of different kinds of models for educational evaluation.

Handout 18

THE PURPOSE OF EVALUATION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Evaluation of the learner is an essential step in the teaching and learning process. Through a comprehensive evaluation program, both the student and the teacher are involved in educational activities that help ensure optimal learning. This process provides teachers with information about the effectiveness of the instructional program and indicates to students their strengths and weaknesses in the acquisition of knowledge and skills.

The assessment of educational outcomes is essential for sound planning in curriculum development. The responsibility to evaluate whether educators and students are achieving educational objectives is one shared by all individuals involved in the teaching/learning process.

Students. At nearly every point during their education, students want to know, and have a right to know, how they are doing in their schooling. Questions that students might ask are:

1. What are my strengths and weaknesses?
2. Am I meeting my expectations for myself?
3. Am I meeting the teacher's expectations?
4. Am I developing feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment?
5. Am I becoming qualified for the next important step in my schooling?
6. How am I doing in comparison to my class or group?

Teachers. A teacher may have several reasons for wanting to evaluate a learner. One is concern about the effectiveness of teaching methods; another is concern about a specific student's success or failure. Teachers may also want to compare the results of local instructional programs with the results of similar programs in other parts of the state or nation. Questions that teachers might ask are:

1. Are the objectives of the course of study appropriate?
2. Have the students met the objectives?
3. What appear to be the points that demand additional instruction?
4. What methods can best bring about improvements in learning?

5. How can additional or remedial instruction be provided to meet a specific student's needs?

School Officials. A comprehensive evaluation of the social studies program should reveal not only strengths but also areas of needed improvements. Questions that school officials might ask are:

1. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the social studies program?
2. Is the current social studies program achieving district-wide goals and objectives?
3. What type of changes and/or experimentations should be conducted to improve the instructional program?
4. What are the educational gains of our students as compared to those of students in other districts?
5. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the social studies teachers?
6. What inservice programs appear to be needed?

Parents. As long as school is seen as a means of advancement or as a way of securing a place in society, and as long as parents have hopes and fears for their children, parents will be concerned about children's educational progress. A school evaluation program should, therefore, involve parents in the process as educational partners. Questions that parents might ask are:

1. How good is the local social studies program?
2. Are students gaining in skills and knowledge as a result of the program?
3. Are the different educational needs of all students being met by the program?
4. Are teachers trying different methods of teaching to meet the needs of the students?
5. Are the evaluation data used to help the students progress in the instructional program?
6. How can the evaluation data be used by parents to help teachers help students?

Many individuals and groups have a legitimate interest in how students are progressing and in what kind of job the schools are doing in meeting the educational needs of students. It is important for social studies educator, to remember that the purpose of evaluation is to provide feedback and guidance to the whole educational process at every level.

Evaluation as an Instructional Tool

There are many facets to evaluating growth in learning. Many teachers, parents, and administrators tend to think of the measurement of educational growth only in terms of tests and testing. *Evaluation* is a collective term for many of the ways and methods available for students, teachers, administrators, and parents to obtain feedback about the effectiveness of the teaching/learning process. *Testing* is only one component of evaluation, a component that involves the use of a particular grouping of instruments and/or procedures to determine students' knowledge or intelligence. *Measurement* is the procedure by which student behavior is described, usually in mathematical terms. *Grading* is the attempt by teachers to sum up their estimates of students' work in terms of marks or symbols. Thus, evaluation becomes the umbrella under which these components operate in the instructional program.

Evaluation must be sufficiently diversified so that it can be integrated into all stages of curriculum planning and implementation. Within the classroom, student evaluation by teachers (and specialists) may include (1) classroom observations, (2) interviews and critiques, (3) tape recordings of individual and group activities, (4) case studies, (5) students' checklists and work sheets, (6) group discussions, (7) individual and group conferences, (8) diaries and logs, (9) sociograms, (10) pictures, drawings, murals, and montages, (11) checklists, inventories, and questionnaires, (12) audio and visual tapes, (13) commercial tests, and (14) teacher-made tests.

Characteristics of an Effective Evaluation Program

A major function of evaluation as an instructional tool is to demonstrate to the social studies educator the effectiveness of the instructional program. An effective program of evaluation is many-faceted and displays the following characteristics:

1. It is based on clear and specific objectives.
2. It is continuous and cumulative, with records kept by teachers and students.

3. It includes as many objective methods of evaluation as possible.
4. It includes subjective material (case studies, diaries) that can be used to support objective results.
5. It is carried on daily through informal methods as well as at frequent intervals with more formal instruments.
6. It includes planning by teachers for using evaluation data fully and effectively.
7. It is wisely interpreted to students, parents, and others.
8. It does not unduly emphasize any one socioeconomic class.
9. It includes controlled teacher experimentation with new methods and devices.
10. It includes or involves students, parents, and administrators.

For evaluation to serve as an instructional tool, it must provide some appraisal of the extent to which the program objectives and student progress are achieved. This process, which involves student and teacher self-evaluation, not only provides a blueprint of strengths and weaknesses for both the individual and the group but also serves as a guide for future planning by students, teachers, administrators, and parents.

Handout 19

PRIORITIES FOR EVALUATION

Instructions: Please use this form to indicate which specific area of the program or which aspect of student performance should receive the top priority for evaluation. Answer (1) from your own point of view, (2) from your perception of your supervisor's main concern, and (3) from your perception of parents' primary interests.

1. By ______________ (date), I would like to know ______________________ (what)

____

____

about ____ (whom).

2. By ______________ (date), I think my supervisor ______________________

would like to know ____ (what)

about ____ (whom).

3. By ______________ (date), I think my students' parents would like to

know ____ (what)

____.

Handout 20

CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATING INFORMAL CLASSROOM TESTS

The Test Plan	Yes	No
1. Does the plan include the instructional objectives and content that will be measured?		
2. Does the table of specifications indicate the emphasis to be given to each instructional objective and to each content area?		
3. Will the test assess the mastery of the instructional objectives (skills, knowledge, understanding)?		
The Test Items		
4. Are the test items appropriate for the learning outcomes to be measured?		
5. Do the items measure a representative sample of the instructional objectives and subject-matter content?		
6. Are the items of appropriate difficulty for the learning outcomes to be measured?		
7. Are the items that measure the same instructional objectives grouped together in the test?		
8. Is the answer to each item one on which experts (or other teachers) would agree?		
9. Do the items present clear and definite tasks to be performed?		
10. Are the items free from technical defects (clues, ambiguity, inappropriate reading level)?		
11. Are the items of each type consistent with the guidelines for constructing that type of item?		
12. Are the items numbered in a consistent style?		
13. Are all items free of cultural and sexual bias?		
The Test		
14. Are specific, clear directions provided for each section of the test and for the test as a whole?		
15. Are the test items arranged in order of increasing difficulty within each section of the test and within the test as a whole to the extent possible?		
16. Does the layout of the items on the page contribute to ease of reading and scoring?		

9. INSTALLING AND MAINTAINING THE PROGRAM

Gerald W. Marker

Introduction

If you started at the beginning of this guide and are still with us, congratulations! By now you have something that 90 percent of the social studies departments in this country lack: a program that is based on a rationale reflected in its objectives and goals, implemented by carefully chosen instructional materials, and made accountable by various evaluation devices used to assess student achievement. That is no small accomplishment. By all rights you deserve to sit back and relax for a while. Unfortunately, you can't afford to do that.

One current piece of folk wisdom maintains that by the time computer technologists learn all there is to know about a specific model, their skills are already obsolete--new, different, more-complex models are already on the drawing boards. In a sense, district planners face the same situation with a new curriculum program. Even if all members of the social studies faculty were involved in the original planning effort, as soon as new teachers join the staff or new administrators are named you will have to deal with people who don't feel that the program is "theirs." And no matter how hard you have tried to involve community members, most of them will not know what you are doing or why.

Accountability

Two audiences deserve attention as district planners collect and analyze data about how a new program is working. The first is the public at large--parents' "right to know how well their schools are doing." Professional educators often become irritated by ordinary citizens' lack of information or their simplistic conclusions about complex problems--for example, the allegation that schools are responsible for what is perceived as the general decline of public morality. However, frustrating as it can sometimes be, working with the public is part of the business of education--just as campaigning is a part of serving in the U.S. Senate.

A second audience is often overlooked when accountability is discussed, and that audience is composed of our own colleagues. Data gathered from implementing an accountability plan can be used in at least three ways: (1) to make future curriculum revisions, (2) to analyze trends, and (3) to help other school districts decide whether to adopt a similar program.

Using aggregate data to evaluate a program is a concept that should be introduced the first time evaluation is discussed and reinforced every time thereafter. The idea is so important that it is worthwhile to invest extra time in convincing local opinion leaders (who are not necessarily persons in official leadership positions) of the soundness of the concept, so that they will be willing to lend it their support. Using standardized departmentwide evaluation instruments, either commercial or home-made, can do much to reduce the risks that individual teachers perceive as inherent in adapting a new program. Evaluation can also facilitate trend analysis. (Are today's high school seniors better able to read graphs and charts than seniors were five years ago?) By reducing the risk element, evaluation procedures can help ensure implementation of the program.

Perhaps one of the aspects of accountability most difficult to deal with is related to teachers' negative attitudes toward the idea that they have a responsibility to make evaluation results public and that the public has a right to see and analyze those results. The idea of merely sharing their tests with colleagues is threatening to many teachers, yet public sharing is the "bottom line" of curriculum revision based upon accountability.

The position "What I do in my classroom is my business" has been adopted by many teachers over the years, often for good reason. Reluctance to openly share information can be an effective means of reducing risk. But fear of public exposure can gradually be replaced by trust if teachers can be shown that the results of an evaluation program will be reported as aggregate data rather than on a teacher-by-teacher basis. Put another way, the question is "How well are we achieving our objectives in the government course?," not "How well are the students in teacher A's class doing compared to those in teacher B's class?"

Pressures for accountability can help us as much as they hurt us. Keeping that possibility in mind may make efforts to achieve accountability less painful and more profitable.

Community Involvement

Exactly how a school district goes about implementing a program depends to a large extent on the components of that program. Nevertheless, whatever its components, you can be sure that a program will not install itself. Research indicates that success in bringing about change is positively related to the extent of effort made on behalf of that change. If the program is going to survive until the first trend analysis, it must receive support from the community. Involving community representatives from the beginning will made it much easier to build support among parents, civic groups, the media, and the public in general. You will need to use every possible avenue to inform people about what you are up to and why. School newsletters, radio talk shows, articles in the local newspaper, speeches to civic organizations and parent-teacher groups, school open houses--use them all. For a useful discussion about how this might be done, see Ronald Havelock's *The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology Publications, 1973).

If community representatives are brought in at the implementation stage of this process, there is one little "hooker" to watch out for. One of the most common reasons for failure in implementing a new program is incompatibility with local values. In the process of revising a curriculum and designing an evaluation system, it is easy to forget that members of the community, not educators, are the clients. If planners lose sight of that fact, they may discover that the new program "scratches where the public doesn't itch." For example, heavy emphasis may have been placed on values clarification when most citizens are more concerned that students learn to read maps and write grammatically correct sentences. Although it is true that giving the public what it wants may have the effect of "provincializing" the schools, that is a risk we must take. For it is also true that "he who pays the piper calls the tune"--which is what the accountability movement is all about.

Installing the Program

The fact that your social studies curriculum was designed by the very people who will implement it is a big plus in terms of installing the program. Educators are fond of talking about how teachers should take into account the individual differences of students; that is not bad advice to curriculum planners as they put a new program into operation. Not all teachers (who are people, too) accept change at the same rate, and they need to be given opportunities to express their concerns and doubts. That is more likely to happen if the issue can be depersonalized--for example, a question to a teacher could be phrased as "What are some of the things that might go wrong with this new program, and what can we do to avoid them?" rather than as "What makes *you* most uncomfortable about this new program?" The activity in this section is designed to help classroom teachers understand and deal with some of the problems that may arise in installing the program.

Conducting the Activity

Item(s) Provided: (1) Handout 21, "Force-Field Analysis Worksheet," (2) Handout 22, "Action Plan Worksheet."

Item(s) You Should Provide: Ten 3" x 5" cards for each participant.

Activity Objectives: Participants should be able to (1) express their concerns and doubts about the new program, (2) identify problems which may arise with the program, (3) outline some actions to help install the program.

Suggested Steps

1. Explain to the participants that you want them to help project some of the future problems and payoffs of the new curriculum and evaluation system once it is put into use. (This assumes that they know about the program and how it is supposed to work; if not, back up and do that first.)

2. Give each person ten 3" x 5" cards, and ask the group to put one statement on each card. Each statement should begin in one of two ways: (a) "A problem that is likely to be caused by this program is. . . . " or (b) "One of the positive payoffs that we can anticipate from this program is. . . . " Participants should not put their names on the cards. Allow ten minutes for this step. (Note: The group leader should also fill out ten cards in order to make sure that all ideas that need to be discussed are on cards--especially problems or payoffs that others are likely to think of but might be reluctant to write down.)

3. Collect all the cards and put them in the center of the table. If the participants are working in small groups, each small group should have its own stack of cards.

4. Distribute Handout 21, "Force-Field Analysis Worksheet." Explain that force-field analysis is a simple but extremely effective method of dealing with problems arising from change by (1) identifying positive and negative change forces, (2) evaluating the relative strength or importance of each force, and (3) identifying strategies for minimizing the negative change forces.

5. Ask participants to take the cards one at a time and list them on their worksheets as "supporting forces" or "restraining forces," indicating whether they belong under "self," "significant others," or "institution." You may wish to post the following examples to help participants classify problems and payoffs:

Supporting Forces	Restraining Forces
Self	
I was involved in planning the program, so I will be able to teach the materials we've selected.	I don't agree with the rationale statement we've written.
Significant Others	
The superintendent of schools has asked us to do this, so he will support the implementation.	The third-grade teachers won't like the content.
Institution	
	The district doesn't have enough money to purchase all these new materials.

6. Caution the participants not to try to compile a long list of supporting forces--an activity that often leads to a buildup of resistance. Rather, each group should identify one restraining force and develop an action plan to reduce that force or turn it into a supporting force.

7. Distribute Handout 22, "Action Plan Worksheet." Explain that the first step in trying to reduce a restraining force is to change the force statement into a goal statement. For example, the goal statement for the restraining force "The third-grade teachers won't like the content" could be: "Between June 1 and August 1, 28 of the 40 third-grade teachers in this district will have reviewed and become committed to the content suggested for grade 3." Note the components of a good goal statement: (1) it is measurable (28 of 40 third-grade teachers), (2) it has a beginning and an end--that is, it is time-phased (June 1 to August 1), and, most important, (3) it is realistic. The goal should always be something that stands a good chance of being achieved.

Ask each group of participants to choose a restraining force, develop a goal statement, and then identify an action idea. They should work all the way through the action idea, indicating each step in the action plan; who will do it; where, when, and how; and what special resources will be needed.

8. Ask the small groups to share their action plan worksheets with the whole group. Some groups may have identified the same restraining forces but developed quite different action plans. Discussion of action alternatives will be very useful. If time allows, you may ask each small group to choose a second restraining force and develop a second action plan.

Introducing New Materials

One of the most misunderstood, mistreated, and mismanaged activities in K-12 education is inservice teacher training in the use of new materials. Too often this process is conducted like preservice education--an expert is called in to lecture about proper use of the materials, but teachers are given no opportunity to actually use them. Occasionally, workshop sessions are held so that teachers can try out the new materials. However, provision is seldom made for follow-through sessions during which teachers can share the problems they have encountered when using the materials in the classroom and get help in solving those problems.

Another major fault of most inservice training in the use of new materials is that there is too much focus on "organizing concepts" or "general strategies" or "evaluation design" and not enough focus on the practical and physical use of the materials--what the components are, when and how each is used, which lessons must be taught and which are supplementary, and so forth. A happy combination of theory and practicality is needed in any workshop designed to introduce teachers to new materials.

The following list of tips should be helpful in planning an inservice workshop:

1. Identify the purpose of the workshop for the participants. They should know why the workshop is necessary and why it is necessary for them to attend.

2. Identify who should attend. This will depend on many things, from the content of the session to the size of the available facilities. If you are introducing a new elementary curriculum, you need to decide whether to conduct one workshop for all elementary teachers, separate workshops for teachers at each grade level, or workshops for every school.

Is it necessary to involve administrators? What about parents and students? There are many possible combinations of participants. Look carefully at all of them before you make a final decision about who should be involved.

3. Decide how many sessions will be needed and how much time each session will require. It is feasible to introduce new materials to a group of teachers in a one-hour session. Giving teachers an opportunity to work with the materials will take longer; if you want teachers to try out the materials in their classrooms and share their findings afterward, you will need a second session. Carefully plan what will be needed to give teachers the maximum help in installing the new materials.

4. Choose facilities with participants' needs in mind. The time of day, the day of the week, the setting--all are important to the success of inservice workshops. It is impossible for people to work in small groups in a room where the chairs are bolted to the floor, auditorium style. It is uncomfortable for adults to sit for two hours in a room designed for third-grade students. Both after-school workshops and Saturday-morning workshops have disadvantages--what time would be best for your teachers? Sometimes more can be accomplished in the half-hour before school starts, when teachers are fresh, than in three hours after school, when they are tired.

5. Choose your presenters or consultants with care. This is a crucial consideration. Consultants will do a better job for you if they are tuned in to your objectives. Publishers will frequently provide free consulting services for the installation of new programs purchased by a school or district. However, you're not interested in having the consultant sell the program all over again. You've already bought the materials; you're now interested in learning how to use them. Make this point clear whether the consultant is a publisher's representative, an outside expert, or a teacher from your own district who has used the materials.

6. Evaluate your session. Evaluation can be conducted at either or both of two levels: You can evaluate the workshop itself or you can evaluate teacher behavior following the workshop. Evaluation of a workshop frequently will yield "afterglow" reactions--feelings about how the session went. Evaluation of teacher behavior will give you information both about the effectiveness of the session and about whether, in fact, the teachers did learn to use the materials. Workshop evaluations are worthwhile only to the extent that they are used to plan future sessions and help participants with problems.

7. Plan special sessions for new teachers and transferred teachers. The first year you install your program, all the teachers using the materials will be trained to use them. But if a teacher resigns after one semester, the new teacher must be taught to use the materials. Occasionally a teacher will switch grade levels within a school, or a teacher may transfer from one school to another. Although you won't want to hold a complete inservice session for just one person, you should design an efficient way to train new teachers as they begin to use the program. You might decide to keep all the handouts from your initial training sessions or to videotape the sessions and let new teachers view the tapes. But plan ahead--you will need to make some provision for training new teachers before they arrive.

8. Have an inservice follow-through session after the materials have been in use for one year. A summer inservice session devoted strictly to solving problems that have arisen in using the new materials will strengthen your program immeasurably.

Maintaining the Program

A new curriculum program is a lot like a new car: Even without much maintenance it will run fine for the first few months, but if you ignore it too long it will break down when you need it most.

Curriculum programs generally survive so long as they have strong support from key people. But no sooner has a program been installed than it begins to "wear out" in subtle ways. Perhaps the people who designed the program have left or retired. Perhaps data have been reported to the community in a way that makes the program seem complicated or full of jargon, with the result that parents begin to suspect that something is being held back or covered up. If no educational use is made of the evaluative data, teachers and administrators may begin to feel that the evaluation exercise is a lot of trouble for nothing, or they may decide that the evaluation procedures are not measuring what people believe to be important. Whatever the cause, you cannot afford to let support for the new program slip away. After all, you have invested a lot of time, energy, and money in the effort to install it.

Internal Maintenance Activities

One of the most important things you can do to maintain support for a new program is to keep people talking about it, both within the school district and in the community at large. An information-sharing practice can be as simple as asking each teacher to put a copy of every curriculum item that is duplicated (except tests) into a box by the ditto machine. Establish a rule that anyone can look through the box, but no item developed or used by one teacher can be duplicated by another teacher without the developer's permission. This practice encourages communication.

Intradepartmental sharing can be encouraged by occasionally devoting part of a department meeting to asking each member to complete this sentence: "My best creative effort this year (semester) was. . . ." This exercise gives people a chance to talk about the positive things they are doing, helps them keep track of what others in the department are doing, and provides a welcome relief from the focus on problems which so often characterizes department meetings.

The end of the first year, by which time you should have the first batch of evaluative data to work with, is an appropriate time to sit back and reflect about what you have learned. An ideal way to do this is to schedule a one- or two-day retreat, probably during the first week or two after school is dismissed in June. (If you wait until just before school starts in the fall teachers may be fresher, but there will be no time to make whatever adjustments are suggested by the evaluative data.) In large districts, a representative committee can be charged with interpreting the evaluative data. If the district employs a social studies supervisor or an evaluator, try to involve that person in the retreat. Even if "insiders" play such specialized roles in your district, it may be useful to bring in an outside consultant. An outsider may be able to see significant findings in the data that might be overlooked by people who have worked closely with the program. (And, of course, it is difficult for a person from within a district to be considered an "expert" on anything.) One way to bring in an "expert" without spending any money is to borrow one from a nearby school district. In return, someone from your staff will agree to go over and serve as that district's "expert."

The primary role of the retreat leader will be to limit the discussion to the agenda. People who are not trained in evaluation may quickly become bored with data interpretation, especially if the data do not confirm their own impressions. Here is a suggested agenda for the retreat:

1. Introduction
   a. Remind participants what the district wanted the new program to accomplish.
   b. Review program goals.
   c. Review data collection procedures.
2. Interpreting the evaluative data
   a. Review the data in terms of the program goals.
   b. Review the data in terms of grade levels and subject clusters.
   c. Compare the data to state and national norms.
   d. Analyze trends, comparing the results of the new program to the results of previous programs in the district.
3. Reporting the data
   a. Decide what data should be reported to the community and how it should be reported.

b. Decide what and how should be reported to other professionals, including the school board and the state department of education.

4. Using the evaluative data to modify the curriculum

a. Identify problem areas and program goals and objectives that are not being attained.

b. Identify goals and objectives that are no longer appropriate.

c. Decide what objectives, if any, need to be added to the program.

5. General review

a. Assess the extent of cooperation in the collection of evaluative data.

b. Establish who is responsible for doing what.

c. Make plans and assign responsibility for briefing new people in the fall.

d. Deal with other general problems.

Community Maintenance Activities

Community interest can be stimulated by setting up a speaker's bureau of teachers who are prepared to address community groups about the new program. Local civic and service clubs are likely to be eager to accept the offer of a speaker. However, before the first teacher heads off to speak, the coordinating group should agree on what main points each speaker will cover and how they will be presented. You don't want speakers to be contradicting one another.

Another way of keeping the community informed about your new program is to periodically hold press conferences and issue press releases. Here are some tips for effectively reporting your program through the press:

1. *Do* involve teachers and parents in writing the releases. This will help reduce the amount of educational jargon.

2. *Don't* single out individual teachers for comparison.

3. *Do* compare local results with state and national norms whenever possible.

4. *Do* appoint someone to record the questions asked and comments made during press conferences; this kind of feedback may provide clues for effectively revising the program or your reporting techniques.

5. *Do* give representatives of the press a written summary of the material you plan to cover a few hours before every press conference.

6. *Don't* be alarmed if a reporter presents information out of context or plays up insignificant findings. *Do* let the reporter know that you are concerned about describing the program accurately and that you are eager to work toward building a long-term relationship of trust.

Summary

Like any other complicated entity, a new social studies program will encounter problems from time to time. As the society in which a school district operates changes, so will the pressures on its social studies program. The community may decide that schools ought to be emphasizing other subject areas. The special interests of a new superintendent of schools may cause an upheaval in a smoothly operating program and reporting system. Whatever their cause, problems are most easily dealt with when they are identified early. Regular use of force-field analysis is an excellent method of identifying potential problems and deciding how to deal with them. The time invested in this exercise will go a long way toward maintaining a trouble-free program.

Even if no major problems arise, a social studies program should be thoroughly examined every few years to see if it still fits community needs. If you have just finished working your way through the activities in this guide, you may cringe at the thought of facing all these tasks again in just three or four years. But don't forget that the next time around you will have the benefit of a few years of accumulated data on how the present program is working--a resource that should make your revision job considerably easier. During this "major overhaul" procedure, planners should also take a careful look at whether the evaluation system is adequately documenting the program's performance.

Remember that an effective curriculum program requires both day-to-day maintenance and occasional major overhauls. If you take proper care of your program, it will give you long and dependable service.

Additional Resources

(See page 11 for information about how to obtain ERIC documents, which are identified by ED numbers.)

Cox, C. Benjamin. *The Censorship Game and How to Play it*. Bulletin 50. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977.
Censorship of curriculum materials or instructional practices is discussed in this bulletin, which includes appendices containing NCSS's position statements on academic freedom, controversial issues, and civil rights.

Davis, Larry Nolan, and Earl McCallon. *Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Workshops*. Austin, Tex.: Learning Concepts, 1974.
A practical guide to planning and conducting workshops, this book moves step by step through the workshop process from the earliest planning stage to final evaluation. Each section begins with a short preface which is followed by information about procedures, tools, models, and methods. The section on evaluation is presented as an essay. Worksheets for use in implementing the activities are included in the text.

Foshay, Arthur W. *Coping with Community Controversy: Guidelines for Introducing New Social Studies Programs*. Boulder, Colo.: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and Social Science Education Consortium, 1974. 37 pp. ED 102 087. (MF $.83, HC $2.06; plus $.30 postage.)
Foshay argues that the school curriculum is under the control of the local education authority and of the people who elect that authority. For social studies, this premise implies that teachers will have to take on the task of educating the community in addition to educating their students. In other words, teachers will have to appear on public platforms, take part in public groups, and in general carry on a program of public education about the nature of the social studies and the issues they think students need to understand and analyze. The second--and major--portion of the publication contains guidelines to help educators in coping with actual or potential community controversy.

Handbook for Departmental Leadership in the Social Studies. Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1976.
Prepared by the Social Studies Development Center at Indiana University, this handbook provides valuable help in working with committees, organizing social studies departments, and providing inservice training. One section describes force-field analysis.

Implementing the Utah Social Studies Guide: Workshop Manual. Salt Lake City, Utah: Utah State Board of Education, 1975. 34 pp. ED 130 977. (MF $.83, HC $2.06; plus $.30 postage.)
This workshop manual was designed to help teachers and principals in Utah public schools use and interpret their state social studies guide (ED 065 383). The manual shows how to use the state guide to achieve learning objectives through such techniques as stimulating student interests, using effective learning activities, and properly demonstrating content with materials relevant to real life. A sample unit planning exercise is presented, and an evaluation checklist is included in the manual.

Mahan, James M., and F. Jean Gibb. *How to Install a New Curriculum.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology Publications, 1972.
This is the introductory unit in a series entitled How to Get New Programs into Elementary Schools, which is designed to assist school administrators in dealing with new curricula.

Nelson, Jack L., and William S. Hering. *Developing a Position on Academic Freedom and Censorship.* Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, 1976.
Various views of academic freedom are presented in this monograph, along with a description of the nature of academic freedom in elementary and secondary schools. The authors present guidelines for developing a personal and professional position on this topic.

Pfeiffer, J. William, and John E. Jones. *Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training.* La Jolla, Calif.: University Associates, 1969-75.
This is a nine-volume set of materials providing activities for human-relations training events. The experiences fall into 11 categories,

ranging from simple icebreakers to complex organizational development practices. Complete instructions and suggested uses are given for each activity.

Tom, Alan. "Teacher Reaction to a Systematic Approach to Curriculum Implementation." *Curriculum Theory Network* 11 (Spring 1973), pp. 86-93.
In this article, four unexpected patterns of teacher behavior are identified and elaborated: (1) selecting national project curricula on the basis of pragmatic criteria, (2) visualizing teaching problems with new materials after classroom experience with these materials, (3) rejecting abstract analysis of curriculum issues in favor of concrete thinking, and (4) viewing curriculum implementation as essentially a political process. The author examines the implications of these teacher reactions for current conceptions of systematic educational change and for the field of curriculum analysis.

Handout 21

FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS WORKSHEET

Your stated goal: ____.

____

____

____

Supporting Forces ⟶ ⟵ Restraining Forces

Self

Significant Others

Institution

Handout 22

ACTION PLAN WORKSHEET

Force Selected to Work on: ____________________

Goal: ____________________

Action Idea(s) Chosen: ____________________

What Will Be Done?	Who Will Do It?	Where and When?	How?	Special Resources Needed

Appendix A

APPROACHES TO CONTENT SELECTION

EXAMPLE I

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Scope and Sequence

	KINDERGARTEN Our Friends and Helpers	FIRST GRADE Families of School and Home	SECOND GRADE Interdependence of Our Community	THIRD GRADE Pittsburgh, My City
GEOGRAPHY	Seasons and weather affect the activities of people	Topography helps determine how people live.	Growing things to preserve the natural resources.	People must plan and work together to conserve natural resources.
	People adapt to the natural environment to meet their needs.	Natural resources determine the kind of skills people use.	Topography helps determine how neighborhood communities are laid out.	Pittsburghers are interdependent with other communities of the world because of differing environments.
ECONOMICS	Care in use of equipment and materials makes them last longer	Members of the school family are interdependent upon each other.	People earn a living by producing services and goods for others.	Pittsburgh is a large industrial city.
	Our schools need special workers who provide services.	The policeman and librarian are workers who provide services for us.	Workers need special skills to do their jobs.	Pittsburgh uses products from other parts of the world.
SOCIOLOGY and ANTHROPOLOGY	Children go to school to learn, to work, and play together.	Children everywhere go to school.	Business tends to locate in the central area of the neighborhood.	Pittsburgh is a large community made up of smaller communities.
	We depend upon one another for love, approval, and help at school as well as at home	Children everywhere belong to a family	The school is one of the places where we learn.	Newspapers, television, and radio help keep us informed.
GOVERNMENT	We can live happily together if we respect the rights of others	Rules and regulations are needed for safety and courtesy	Organization and rules are necessary for good living in the classroom.	Pittsburgh provides special services for the good of all.
	Safety drills are necessary.	We help by obeying the rules of the community.	Some neighborhood services are paid for by taxes.	People plan together to make their city a better place to live.
AMERICAN HERITAGE	We are proud to be Americans.	Our flag has special meaning for us.	Special observances make us more aware of our American heritage.	Names of streets and places in Pittsburgh help us remember important people and events.
	We remember and honor great men in our country.	Thanksgiving is part of our American heritage.		Pittsburgh long ago was the foundation of Pittsburgh today.

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EXAMPLE 2
Denver, Colorado
Scope and Sequence
(1964)

GRADE SIX

LATIN AMERICA: NEIGHBORS TO THE SOUTH
- An Overview of Latin American Geography
- Exploration and Development of Latin America
- Modern Latin America -- Problems Facing Its People
- Interdependency of the Western Hemisphere

GRADE FIVE

THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA
- Early Exploration in the Western Hemisphere
- Colonial Living Leads to Independence
- Our United States
- Canada, An Independent Nation

GRADE FOUR

THE WORLD AS THE HOME OF MAN
- Learning to Think Geographically
- WAys People Live in Hot-Wet and Hot-Dry Lands
- Ways People Live in Highland and Lowland Regions
- The World of Many People

GRADE THREE

THE LARGER COMMUNITY
- Communities of Colorado
- Denver -- A Large City Community
- Other Large City Communities in the United States
- Citizenship and Responsibility in the Community

GRADE TWO

THE WORLD BEYOND OUR NEIGHBORHOOD
- Recreation in Our Local Natural Surroundings
- How We Get Our Food
- Ways We Travel
- Children of Other Lands

GRADE ONE

NEIGHBORHOOD AND COMMUNITY SERVICE
- Good Citizenship in the Neighborhood
- Families Near and Far
- The Neighborhood Shopping Center
- People Who Help Us

KINDERGARTEN

IMMEDIATE SURROUNDINGS
- School Living
- Our Family

A-2

EXAMPLE 3

Rochester, Minnesota
Scope and Sequence
(1964)

KINDERGARTEN

Home Environment

School Environment

GRADE ONE

- Home Environment
- Homes in Other Lands
  - Mexico
  - Switzerland
  - Japan
- Special Days
- Our American Heritage
- The World Today

GRADE TWO

- City of Rochester
- Current Happenings
- Japan
- Mexico
- Switzerland
- France
- India
- State of Hawaii

GRADE THREE

- Norway
- The Sahara
- North American Tundra
- Australia
- The Amazon
- The Netherlands
- The Philippines
- Patriotism

GRADE FOUR

- Geography of South America
- Historical Development
- Regions of South America
  - Ecuador, Bolivia, and Peru
  - Brazil and The Guianas
  - Columbia and Venezuela
  - Chile, Argentina, Uruguay and Paraguay
- Middle America
  - Central America
  - Mexico
  - West Indies
- Geography of Canada
- Historical Development of Canada
- Government of Canada
- Regions of Canada

GRADE FIVE

- Map Skills Review
- Exploration (of United States)
- Early Settlements
- Independence and Growth of Democracy
- Westward Expansion
- Industrialization of the U.S.
- War Between the States
- Our Nation Reunites and Grows
- The U.S. and the World Today
- Physical Geography Study of the U.S.

GRADE SIX

- The U.S. Before 1875
- The U.S. -- A Great Industrial Nation
- Life and Culture in the Twentieth Century
- The U.S. -- A World Power in the Twentieth Century
- The U.S. -- A World of Neighbors in the Twentieth Century
- Minnesota (9 weeks in Spring)

EXAMPLE 4: CALIFORNIA STATEWIDE STUDY COMMITTEE

Grade K 2: Mankind: Man's Distinctive Characteristics

Modes and Processes of Inquiry	Illustrative Concepts	Illustrative Settings
1. What is a man?		
Analytic Observation Classification Integrative (Comparison)	Human or man or mankind Reptiles, mammals, etc. (Infant dependency)	Mammals, reptiles Members of the class A Pacific Island community
2. How do men and animals adapt to and change the land they live on?		
Analytic Classification Observation Communication Integrative (Comparison)	Landforms and water bodies (Adaptation and ecology) Climate, weather (Topography)	Landforms and water bodies The students and their community Eskimos, other tribal groups Animals, including prehistoric
3. Why do things have names?		
Analytic As above Integrative (Comparison) Policy Valuing	Name (symbol) Language (written language)	Members of the class Plains Indians or Japanese Animals
4. Why are there rules for everyone?		
Analytic As above Integrative Comparison Policy Valuing	Rules (roles) (Age and sex statuses) (Division of labor and of authority) Work, play, needs, wants	Members of the class, their families, community Animals A dissimilar human group
5. How are people alike and how are they different?		
Integrative Observation Comparison Policy Valuing	All previous concepts (Space, time) Tools (technology) (Individual differences: ethnic differences. Ethnic group contributions)	Unfamiliar human groups, over space and time Individuals, contributions

EXAMPLE 4: CALIFORNIA STATEWIDE STUDY COMMITTEE

Grades 3-4: Man and Land: Cultural and Geographic Relationships

Modes and Processes Of Inquiry	Illustrative Concepts	Illustrative Settings
1. Why are particular animals found only in certain environments, while men live almost anywhere?		
Analytic Classification Definition (behavioral) Contrastive analysis Generalization Integrative Comparison	Biological adaptation Cultural adaptation: Technology Division of Labor (social organization, (role) Scale, maps	Selected animals Indian groups in early California Groups in different environments
2. Why do different groups of men develop different ways of living in the same or similar environments?		
Analytic Definition (behavioral) Contrastive analysis Generalization Integrative Holistic integration (cultural)	Natural environment, resources Communities: tribal, rural-urban Cultural adaptation Division of labor, comparative advantage,	Early California Indians in early California Agricultural and mining communities in early California
3. How has urbanization altered man's relation to the natural environment?		
Analytic Observation Classification Definition (behavioral) Contrastive analysis Generalization Policy Valuing	Factors of production Division of labor, comparative advantage, specialization Market, trade, middleman Urban functions Spatial distribution, association, interaction	San Francisco in the 19th Century Los Angeles in the 20th Century The local community
4. How are problems of living being met in the modern urban environment?		
Analytic As above Integrative Observation Classification Comparison Cultural integration Policy Valuing	Cultural adaptation Urban form, functions Economic activities Specialization Comparative advantage Intra-city patterns of location, city-hinterland interaction Decision-making	Three urban centers in different parts of the world Local community
5. What is human about human beings?		
Analytic Observation Classification Definition (behavioral) Contrastive analysis Generalization Communication	Adaptation: biological, cultural Life cycle Culture: use of tools, social organization, communication, urge to explain	Selected animals Indian groups in early California Other groups (different cultures)

EXAMPLE 4: CALIFORNIA STATEWIDE STUDY COMMITTEE

Grades 5-6: Mankind and Men: Interaction, Diversity, Individuality

Modes and Processes Of Inquiry	Illustrative Concepts	Illustrative Settings
1. What happens when different groups of men come in contact? Analytic Definition (behavioral) Contrastive analysis Generalization Integrative Holistic integration (cultural) Policy Valuing	Interaction: cooperation, conflict, domination Ethnocentricism, racism Stratification, class values Value conflicts Geographic setting	Spanish-Indian interaction, 16th Century Mexico English-Indian,African interaction, 17th Century Virginia
2. How have ethnic minority groups and individuals affected American development? Analytic Interaction: As above Integrative Holistic integration (historical, cultural)	Migration, immigration Segregation, Discrimination Cultural pluralism Ethocentrism, racism	Irish in Boston The Chinese in San Francisco Negroes and Mexican-Americans in cities
3. How do different groups interact in the United States? Analytic As above Integrative Comparison Holistic integration (cultural, historical)	Spatial Distribution, association, interaction Decision-making and law	Selected cases of group interaction The student's community
4. How do groups interact in other cultures? Analytic Observation Classification Definition (behavioral) Contrastive analysis Generalization Policy Valuing	Race: biological social culture, cultural diversity class, caste Racism, ethnocentrism, and related psychological processes	Brazil India Other societies
5. How is any man like no other man? Integrative Observation Classification Definition (refined) Holistic integration (cultural, historical)	Individuality, individualism World view: myth, religion, ideology Creative expression Media of expression Expression of values	Periclean Athens An African culture Late medieval western Europe Confucian China Mexico

EXAMPLE 5

ROSE TREE MEDIA SCHOOL DISTRICT
Lima, Pennsylvania

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

Pages 88 - 89

(Generalizations -- Charts following)

THEME I

CENTRAL THEME: MAN AND HIS NATURAL AND CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

Unit Titles by Grade Level

Kindergarten	Living Where We Are
Nongraded Levels I-IV	Meeting People from Other Lands
Nongraded Levels V-VI	A. The Concept of Culture B. No Man Is an Island
Nongraded Levels VII-VIII	Venture Around the World
Nongraded Levels IX-X	New Horizons for Desert Lands
Grade 5	A. Basic Geographic Skills and Understanding B. The United States, U.S.S.R., and Canada: A Study in Contrast with a Look Forward to the Future C. A Geographical Survey of The United States: A Regional Approach
Grade 6	A. Basic Geographic Skills and Understandings B. Man, the Transformer of the Universe

THEME II

CENTRAL THEME: RESPONSIBLE CITIZENSHIP AND GOVERNMENTAL DEVELOPMENT

Unit Titles by Grade Level

Nongraded Levels I-IV	Our American Heritage
Nongraded Levels V-VI	Life, Liberty and the Pursuit of Happiness
Nongraded Levels VII-VIII	Our Inalienable Rights
Nongraded Levels IX-X	Strengthening the Dignity of Man
Grade 5	Let Freedom Ring - A Study and Realization of the Democratic Way of Life
Grade 6	Hatikva (The Hope)

THEME III

CENTRAL THEME: RECOGNIZING AND UNDERSTANDING WORLD INTERDEPENDENCY

Unit Titles by Grade Level

Nongraded Levels I-IV	Understanding How We Need Others
Nongraded Levels V-VI	Families Here and Abroad
Nongraded Levels VII-VIII	Working Toward World Friendship
Nongraded Levels IX-X	The Aztec Culture Ends in the Age of Discovery
Grade 5	Regional and Cultural Differences and the American Way of Life
Grade 6	The Revolution of Rising Expectations

CENTRAL THEME: ECONOMIC LIVING

Unit Titles by Grade Level

Nongraded Levels I-IV	Working Together
Nongraded Levels V-VI	Dollars and Sense
Nongraded Levels VII-VIII	The New World -- Land of Opportunity
Nongraded Levels IX-X	Economic Awakening of a Giant – "Brazil"
Grade 5	American Life, as Influenced by Economic and Technical Change
Grade 6	India and Red China -- The Race toward a Better Standard of Living

CENTRAL THEME: CONFLICT AND CHANGE

Unit Titles by Grade Level

Nongraded Levels I-IV	Getting Along with Others
Nongraded Levels V-VI	"Past, Present, Future"
Nongraded Levels VII-VIII	Emergence and Decline of the Inca, Maya, and Plains Indians
Nongraded Levels IX-X	The Two Faces of Japan
Grade 5	Resolving Problems through the Democratic Process of Free Inquiry
Grade 6	Religion and Education: Forces That Change Man's Society

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

ANTHROPOLOGY GENERALIZATIONS	KINDERGARTEN	NON-GRADED Levels I, II, III, IV	NON-GRADED Levels V and VI
1. Man has reached his present physical form through millions of years of a slow, geological process known as evolution. His progress in the past several thousands of years, however, has been predominantly cultural.		Some animals have changed in appearance since pre-historic time.	Man has changed in appearance since pre-historic times.
2. Anthropologists have categorized all mankind into three major classifications called "race" — Mongoloid, Caucasoid, and Negroid. Racial characteristics make for noticeable differences, but in relation to the whole physical being, they are minor.	Human beings everywhere are quite alike in general body appearance.	Although there are three major races, most human traits are shared among all people.	There are differences among races, but these differences are minor.
3. Man is one among many mammals. He differs radically in that he is able to communicate on a highly sophisticated level through space and time.	Man is an animal even though he does not look like other animals.	Man is the animal who talks and shares his experiences. He is the animal who learns new ways and teaches them to his children.	Man's distinctively human characteristics include a sensitive brain, upright posture, manipulative hands, and a vocal mechanism permitting speech.
4. Man has developed a wide variety of cultures, each influenced by their human and physical environment. This wide diversity enriches all human life.	All living things need shelter, but shelters differ according to environment.	People in different places may eat different foods, wear different clothes, and build homes different from ours.	People try in a variety of ways to meet their basic needs of food, clothing, shelter, and human association.
5. An individual's cultural surrounding exerts a powerful influence on him throughout his life. He feels, thinks, and acts according to the dictates of his culture in order to be an acceptable part of it.	Individual families have their own way of doing things.	In their families, schools, and neighborhoods, people learn some of the main rules for getting along with each other. These rules involve cooperation, fairness, and respect for others.	We should try to be an acceptable member of our family, school, and neighborhood.
6. Man changes his culture to cope with new problems. He has survived in a hostile world replete with pitfalls that have forced less-adaptable creatures into extinction.	Man learned to cultivate and tame animals for his use.	Man has learned to use his natural environment and to cope with the dangers involved.	Man has used his associations with others to change his environment and to cope with new problems.
7. All humans are capable of creating and participating in culture, but when cultural poverty and oppresive condition limits this creative-participation, all society is the loser.	We can help those less fortunate than ourselves.	Schools teach us the skills needed to become a good group member.	Good citizens improve our society.
8. No modern group has created more than a small fraction of its present cultural heritage. Each owes much to culture creators of other times and other places.	Our parents and grandparents have taught us much of what we know.	Famous Americans have contributed to much of our present knowledge.	

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

ANTHROPOLOGY

NON-GRADED Levels VII and VIII	NON-GRADED Levels IX and X	GRADE 5	GRADE 6
Man's way of life has changed through the ages.	Culture is a man's way of adapting to and modifying his environment.	Primitive man has laid the foundation for all subsequent forms of human life.	In the 20th century one of the most significant problems is the increase and concentration of human population.
Human races and societies have evolved over a long period of time.	All races have the inherent ability to achieve a similar level of intelligence.	Man's common physical characteristics are due to his common origin. Minor physical differences result from inherited racial traits.	Ultimate races of man will be a product of ever continuous evolution.
Man is capable of thinking and communicating at a highly sophisticated level.	Man's life has been made richer and more comfortable through the application of intelligence.	Conflict among groups tends to be reduced when they understand and appreciate each other's culture.	Man is distinguished from other animals by his continuous history, his progress and his development of culture.
Climate affects living conditions around the world.	All men have not developed the same cultures.	Differences between people and their ways of living are perpetuated and possibly amplified by separating barriers.	Groups all over the world have tended to become more closely related and more interdependent.
Families have different customs according to their ethnic backgrounds and their geographic environment.	Human groups have rules, and individuals are rewarded or punished as they conform.	Rapid cultural change is disruptive in the life of persons and of peoples.	An essential function of religion is the regulation, maintenance, and transmission of the values on which society depends.
Some cultures are more advanced than others throughout the world.	Mankind must learn respect for one another's culture, as well as cooperation for the common welfare.	"Cultural lag" occurs when changes in ideas and institutions do not keep up with technological changes. This often creates social problems.	People throughout the world today are striving to keep certain customs and traditions which they value.
Our government helps to give educational opportunities to unfortunate children.	Every society has its aesthetic activities and appreciation.	People are much alike in feelings and desires, although they differ in appearance.	Participation in and observation of recreational activities is an integral part of all human cultures.
People of many nationalities, races, creeds, colors, and backgrounds have contributed to our nation's progress.		The varied backgrounds of the many groups that came to this country have blended to form a national culture with regional differences.	Cultural differences among groups stem from their different backgrounds, experiences, and environments and may represent different stages of development.

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

ECONOMICS GENERALIZATIONS	KINDERGARTEN	NON-GRADED Levels I, II, III, IV	NON-GRADED Levels V and VI
1. The process of production is an essential ingredient for economic growth and an increased standard of living.	Every person has a responsibility of producing something.	An understanding of the role of each producer and how they produce is important to our economy.	Someone who does useful work is a producer. Many people in the neighborhood make things to help our family.
2. The basic fact which every economy faces is that productive resources are limited and human wants are unlimited. Because man's wants are unlimited, there exists a universal characteristic of economizing — that is allocating the available productive resources so as best to satisfy the wants of the people.	Since every person has wants it is important that we know what our wants are and why we do not always get our wants fully satisfied.	Choice is necessary because individuals and families want more than they can have.	There are many reasons why we are not able to have everything we want.
3. The development and utilization of our labor force are primary factors in our economic growth. The productivity of our workers depends upon the quality of the labor force, the resources with which labor works, and the efficient combination of the two.	Everyone (family and friends) has a certain job to do. We should know what these jobs are.	With more people working together a better job may be done — or a better product made.	Sometimes many people are involved in making things. If we divide the work among many people the job will be finished in less time than if one person worked on it alone.
4. The economy of a nation is ever dependent upon the wise use of capital in order to show continued growth and an ever increasing standard of living.		Capital to the family, generally means income.	Some of the money a man earns by selling his product must be used to buy things he needs to make his product. This money is called capital.
5. Private enterprise, the basis of our economy, exists when private citizens, either as individuals or grouped together as a corporation or in a partnership, are free to go into business themselves, produce what they think consumers will buy, and make a profit.	One person works for himself while others work together.	All businesses depend on nature or other businesses for their raw materials needed in production.	One man may work alone to produce something. Sometimes, two or more men may get together to work on something.
6. In a basically free enterprise economy, government plays a significant role in setting priorities and using resources — that is, in deciding what to produce and how to produce it. Federal, state, and local governments regulate a wide range of economic activity, limiting the freedom of action of individuals and businesses.	There are rules to help us in our work as well as in our play.	Rules are passed to assure safe and pleasant working conditions in all types of business activity.	Some things are so costly that families must buy them together. The money spent by many families together is called taxes.
7. Economic security depends upon the maintenance of an income, both individual and business. The wages and salaries received by the public provides them with an income, which as consumers, they spend on goods and services produced by business. Thus, there is a circular flow of income between the public business, and the government.	The money our fathers bring home from work is called income. This income is used in many different ways.	A person may save some of his income (money).	How one uses his income depends upon freedom to make decisions on what to buy, how much to spend and how much to save
8. Most world economic systems, because of limited human and natural resources, depend upon international trade, to some extent, to secure the resources needed to satisfy the people's wants and needs.		If we cannot produce everything we need in our own community, we depend upon other communities to produce it for us.	Most countries exchange goods and services.
9. In the past, our economy has experienced "ups and downs," commonly referred to as business cycles, of prices, production, and employment. These cycles are of irregular length, going from times of prosperity to recession and to recovery. Business cycles, a common characteristic of private enterprise economies, have no single cause, and are usually a combination of varied causes.			
10. Much of our economic activity is based upon the law of supply and demand. Prices, reflecting shifting conditions of supply and demand, are the main regulator of the allocation of scarce resources into the production of the most desired goods and services.		Usually, if many people want goods and services, suppliers will begin to increase their supply and also increase prices of these items.	The price of commodities depends on how many people want to buy them. If many people want the goods, the price will be high. If people do not want the goods, the price will be low.
11. There are many ways to organize economic activity. Most national economies in the world, though differing in fundamental respects, face the same central economic problem — deciding how to use scarce resources. Different economic systems solve the major economic problem in different ways.			
12. Money is the life blood of most economies, for it makes possible the exchange of goods and services. Its influence is enlarged greatly by our system of banking and credit. Our system of money credit and banking combine to promote and retain a high standard of living.	Money is available in different forms.	Money is used in many different ways.	When we do not spend our money, we save it. Most people save their money in a bank. Banks also lend money to the people who need it, but it must be paid back to the bank with interest.

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

ECONOMICS

NON-GRADED Levels VII and VIII	NON-GRADED Levels IX and X	GRADE 5	GRADE 6
Some people are producers of goods, others are producers of services.	Man's effective use of machines has increased his productivity which, in turn, has improved his way of life.	The goods and services produced by an economy depend upon its stock of resources and how these resources are used.	Modern methods of production and exchange are raising the standard of living for all.
Because we may not be able to have everything we want we must make choices and decide what is best and more important for us to have.	Our choices for the things we want or desire are closely related to our spending habits. Whether we save or not can certainly influence our choices and fulfillment, of our wants.	Available resources for satisfying wants are limited and sometimes mislocated. The wise use of these resources is an individual and group responsibility since it affects all economic life; local, state, national, and international.	Because of limited resources and man's ever increasing needs, each nation must make the wisest possible use of all its human and natural resources.
Some things we get from others because we cannot produce it ourselves. Many people are trained and skilled in making or doing certain things.	By using specialists, families and communities are able to get more efficient use of the goods and services produced. The performance of special assignments is a cooperative manner and develops an ever-increasing productive economy.	Since people, or human resources, are one of the factors of production, much of our well being depends upon the wise utilization and conservation of our human resources.	People speed up production and improve commodities by means of inventions and scientific research.
	Some areas of the world, tend to be undernourished and ill-fed because they lack the machines or capital to produce the goods and services needed in an ever-increasing productive economy.	Productivity of an economic society depends not only upon capital, but also upon human and natural resources as well.	The government takes an important role in developing the economy and its use of capital. Government spending in today's economy is a large factor and promises to continue.
There are many ways for man to produce goods. He may work alone, he may join a partnership, or he may work in a corporation.	Private enterprise has been built upon the conviction that an individual has the right to attempt to sell his goods or services for enough to cover the cost of production and to realize a fair profit.	The system of free enterprise has been a characteristic of American economy from its earliest beginnings.	Individuals in America are free to acquire property and seek their living by making use of this property for production.
The government provides some services more efficiently than we could provide for ourselves.		The Federal government influences our economic system.	Government has the responsibility of maintaining an environment of individual freedom and opportunity compatible with incentives and restrictions for the good of all.
The money a man earns is called income. Income is received for the production of goods and services.	A worker, as a producer, is paid for special services. Within this income he purchases a wide variety of products and services of others. Businessmen as producers, receive income in the form of profits.	The way in which the family uses its income and assumes responsibility for meeting emergencies with savings contributes substantially to the continuing progress and development of our economy.	The earnings and spending of income helps to promote the consumption of goods throughout the world.
Sometimes we must buy things from other countries or other states that we need, but cannot efficiently produce.	The failure of some areas or nations to cooperate economically with other nations has slowed their economic growth.	Regions are mutually interdependent because resources are not divided equally throughout the world.	Since international trade and investment are important, we must understand the functions and operations of the agencies for economic international cooperation.
Goods that are scarce will be expensive, if demanded by the people. Goods that are always available in full supply, will generally cost less.	Supply and demand as an economic principle, is present in most economies of the world.		Supply and demand as an economic principle, is present in most economies of the world.
	Because of limited resources and unlimited wants, various economic systems strive to solve this universal scarcity problem with their own approach, but still keeping in mind the approaches used by other nations.		Capitalism, Communism, Fascism and Socialism are all different ways in which various economic systems have attempted to solve the universal economic problem.
Money makes it easier for us to buy goods. Before we had money we had to use other means of exchange.	Some countries still use the old system of barter instead of money.	Money as a medium of exchange was basically developed because of a transition from the use of barter to a more convenient and easily accepted form.	Money as a medium of exchange was basically developed because of a transition from the use of barter to a more convenient and easily accepted form.

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

GEOGRAPHY GENERALIZATIONS	KINDERGARTEN	NON-GRADED Levels I, II, III, IV	NON-GRADED Levels V and VI
1. Man's life is influenced by his physical location on the earth, the availability of natural resources, and the positions and movements of the earth in the solar system.	Man's cultural background determines his way of life in the 4 seasonal temperate zone.	People live in different types of climates and adopt their way of living to it.	Societies living in valleys, mountains, on plains, near rivers, in jungles, etc. have developed various forms of land transportation that serve them and their environment best.
2. The earth's surface may be classified in a number of ways, (water, land, topographic areas, biotic zones, etc.) each with its implications for man's existence.	The earth is a huge ball represented by the globe. Some areas represent water, and other areas represent land.	Globes can be used to show direction in relation to where we live. (North, South, East, und West.)	Maps and globes can be used to show direction in relationship to where we live. (North, south, east, west.)
3. The earth is liberally supplied with water, although its place and form have proven to be continuing problems for men, and awaits his technological solutions.	An ocean is the largest single body of water.	There are several different water bodies on the earth.	There is a greater water area than land area on the earth.
4. Natural resources may be divided into the replaceable and the irreplaceable.	Trees provide us with paper and wood products.	Plants and animals provide us with food and clothing.	We must be careful to protect and preserve wild plants and animals.
5. Man's utilization of natural resources is related to his desires and his level of technology.	We use paper and wood products in our daily lives.	Man uses stones and wood for shelter; food for growth; and clothing, for protection.	Peoples' desires and technologies differ in the use of natural resources.

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

GEOGRAPHY

NON-GRADED Levels VII and VIII	NON-GRADED Levels IX and X	GRADE 5	GRADE 6
Man's way of life was once completely dependent upon the natural resources available in the immediate vicinity, but today, with technological change and scientific advancement natural resources tend to become global.	In each world area specific geographic elements create an individual geographic situation.	People's cultural background conditions their use of the natural environment.	Man's exploration of space is changing man's geographic concept of the world and its future.
Maps and globes are used to identify continents, countries, mountain ranges, rivers, lakes, and oceans.	Lines of latitude and longitude are the geographers instruments for locating exact positions on a sphere.	The United States is located on the rotating spherical earth and is related to all other nations in terms of size, distance, direction, and time.	Map and globe analysis aids in discovering cause and effect relationships and differing interactions among geographic elements.
Water has been used by man for many purposes.	Early civilizations developed near water.	Man is realizing that he must find new and better ways to use and conserve the earth's natural water supply.	Though geophysical and topographical factors affect the earth's water, culture can control these water bodies, to a degree.
As nations become more interdependent, they tend to rely on each other's natural resources.	Man has vast resources at his command which can be used either for the good of mankind or its destruction.	The wise use of natural resources can aid us in making better use of our natural environment.	As a result of ever-increasing scientific developments and modern technological discoveries, the world's resources are constantly being replaced, better utilized and further synthesized by man to meet his future needs.
The diversity of uses of natural resources has increased due to modern technology.	The earth has a wealth of natural resources, known and unknown, which will contribute to man's welfare.	American scientific and technological development has resulted in our emergence as a world power.	Through utilization, scientific progress, technology, and individual creativity, man, to a great degree, determines his environment.

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

HISTORY GENERALIZATIONS	KINDERGARTEN	NON-GRADED Levels I, II, III, IV	NON-GRADED Levels V and VI
1. Space and time form a framework within which all events can be placed.	Yesterday, today, and tomorrow denote the passing of time.	Birthday to birthday, summer to summer, or Christmas to Christmas denote the passing of one year; from infancy to school age denotes the passing of many years.	A comparison of our life with that of our parents and grandparents can show time relationships.
2. Man's struggle for freedom and human dignity, as compared to the age of the earth, has occupied a relatively brief period of time.		At one time only plants and animals lived on the earth.	Early man depended entirely upon his environment for his existence.
3. The historical past influences the present. The present cannot be adequately understood without knowledge of the past. Life goes on against the "intricate tapestry" of the past. History does not repeat itself, but, events tend to occur in some sort of sequence. Events in nature usually occur uniformly. Human events are predictable, but to a lesser extent.			Each generation of man benefits from all the progress of past generations.
4. History contributes much to man's preparation for his social, economic, and political life. It is possible to derive, from the historical backgrounds of our society, basic principles and implications for thought and action in contemporary affairs.	We can always learn more effective ways of doings things.	People, places and events have contributed to our present way of life.	
5. Change has been a universal condition of human society. Change and progress are, however, not necessarily synonymous. Numerous civilizations have risen and fallen. Some of these have contributed greatly to our present civilizations. The tempo of change has increased markedly in the recent past.			Many present day civilizations are as primitive as civilizations of long ago.
6. History reveals a degree of homogeneity in mankind of all periods of recorded time. Environments in many regions have been altered physically, but human motives or drives within them have remained nearly the same.			
7. In the contemporary world, historical events have a significance which reaches far beyond the limits of a state or province or the place of their origin. In such circumstances the world-wide relationship of events must be understood.			
8. The passing of time and improved historical scholarship have brought new perspectives and understandings to the study of history.			Early man left drawings, markings, artifacts, and other records for mankind.

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

HISTORY

NON-GRADED Levels VII and VIII	NON-GRADED Levels IX and X	GRADE 5	GRADE 6
Over a long period of time, life in our country has changed.	The gradual transition of the ancient civilizations established a basic foundation for our society.	The westward expansion of the Old World led to a conflict between nations.	As man's knowledge of himself and the earth increases the world becomes more understandable.
Eventually, man's life changed from that of the nomadic hunter and gatherer to a settled form of existence based upon animal and plant husbandry.	The origins of urbanism resulted from life in ancient river valley civilizations.	The period of discovery and exploration brought the advanced civilization of western Europe into interaction and conflict with more primitive ways of life in many parts of the New World.	As man's comprehension of the world grows, he should realize that the struggle for human rights is a current problem throughout the world.
Citizens of the future may exercise more wisdom in planning for the future as a result of an understanding of how events of the past have influenced every aspect of the way we live and think.	The present day ways of life and institutions are an outgrowth of the history of a people.	Every effort or reform began as the private opinion of an individual.	World events influenced the historical development of the United States.
Man has bettered his life by improving and adding to the contributions of the past.	The development of social, political and economic institutions are always influenced by what has gone on before.	Technological developments tend to hasten economic and social change.	People have spread civilization by means of communications, migration, trade, and travel.
Future changes will occur more rapidly than past changes.	The constant change in various civilizations, regardless of rate, is an essential factor in the world's historical development.	The location of a community may have much to do with its growth development.	Changes can bring a country to a position of leadership or can bring about a weaker position or its actual destruction.
Though environments have changed, man's basic needs and desires have not.	It is imperative to recognize the need for interdependence among nations; for, through the recognition of all cultural aspects, we will further world understandings and facilitate the process of communication.	People from some cultures tend to follow democratic methods to achieve agreement. Other people use other methods.	In the process of building and maintaining a great nation, Americans must constantly strive for solidarity with other countries of the world.
Because modern transportation and communication have brought the peoples of the world closer together, our actions have had world-wide implications.		A sound knowledge of current national affairs is a basic part of American citizenship.	A knowledge of current political happenings abroad are essential for a well-rounded individual.
Eventually man found ways of writing and printing, as a result, he left a record for mankind.	People have improved their ways of living through many inventions and discoveries.	Some historical events are documented in a more complex manner than others.	Facts may often be interpretated in more than one way. Also it is difficult to separate fact from fiction for every writer has his biases.

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

POLITICAL SCIENCE GENERALIZATIONS	KINDERGARTEN	NON-GRADED Levels I, II, III, IV	NON-GRADED Levels V and VI
1. Every privilege enjoyed by American citizens carries an accompanying obligation, such as the obligation to vote, pay taxes, serve on juries, be informed about our government, and have well informed opinions.	The flag is a symbol of our country. We honor the flag to show our respect for our country.	Accepting classroom duties and responsibilities and participating in classroom voting help build a democratic atmosphere.	Upon reaching voting age we are expected to participate in local, state, and national decisions as our parents do.
2. Political parties perform necessary services in the governing processes. Public interest, support, and participation in political parties is needed to maintain our governmental system.	We can do, think, and say what is socially acceptable in a democratic society as long as we do not interfere with the rights of others.	We have two major parties in the United States. Our parents are free to choose the party which best suits their needs.	The two major political parties in the United States are the Democratic and Republican Parties.
3. The understanding of the workings of local, state, and Federal Governments is an essential ingredient of good citizenship.	The President of the United States is the head of our government. Many countries have a different title for the head of their government.	How the President of the United States carries out his duties and responsibilities is very important.	Local officials are responsible for rules and regulations within our townships.
4. Education for all is a basic tenet of representative government and essential to its most effective functioning.	School helps us to learn to lead more enjoyable lives.	As our community has grown and changed, our schools have grown and changed.	Laws made by our government have influenced the development of our schools.
5. The United Nations is the culminating structure of world interdependence; as world crisis develop its continued existence is essential to world stability.	Collecting for UNICEF helps children throughout the world become strong and healthy.	UNICEF helps children throughout the world in many ways, such as, training doctors and nurses, making medicine, taking care of milk, and making people well.	The United Nations is a group of countries which work together to solve problems.
6. The understanding of current political problems is an excellent method of adopting theoretical information to a practical level.	Magazines, newspapers, radio, and television help us to learn what other children are doing.	The mass news media help us to learn about people and events.	Various news media are constantly working to inform us of immediate happenings.
7. All governments are for the people; but in America government is also by the people and of the people.	People make rules at home and school to insure their health and safety.	Our parents participate in making community laws to help protect everyone in the community.	Our parents select representatives to make state laws which help our state to grow and prosper.
8. The comparison of foreign governments is an essential part in building an understanding of our own Democracy.			

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EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

POLITICAL SCIENCE

NON-GRADED Levels VII and VIII	NON-GRADED Levels IX and X	GRADE 5	GRADE 6
There are some communities outside the U.S. that are democratically organized. The people who live in these communities have some of the same ideas held by people in the U.S.	A democratic society depends on citizens who are intellectually and morally fit to conduct their government. Civic responsibility and moral courage are necessary elements of all members of society.	Good citizenship requires many obligations, duties, and responsibilities.	Freedom of the press is essential to intelligent citizen understanding.
All countries have some form of government, but not all countries have a two party system as we do.	In a democratic society more than one political party may exist.	Selection of candidates for our elections is a major responsibility of our political parties.	Engaging in politics by honest citizens is an essential ingredient for democracy.
The federal government must plan and work with the governments of other countries to ensure world peace.	The basic tenets of democratic government should be understood by all citizens. This should include the functions and services of the government and an understanding of the Constitution.	The Congress, together with the President and the Supreme Court, is responsible for making the rules and regulations for our country.	The local, state, and national governments are bound together in many ways.
Some areas of the world do not have schools, and schools differ from country to country.	In order for a democracy to flourish, an educated citizenry is imperative. One of our freedoms is limitless opportunity for education.	An understanding of the origins and workings of our Federal Government is essential to good citizenship.	The well-being of the state is dependent upon the educational level of its citizens.
The United Nations is an organization for world peace.	The standard of living throughout the world is enhanced by the many and varied agencies contained within the United Nations.	The settlement of minor world problems before they grow into major areas of conflict is a primary responsibility of the United Nations.	The principal organs of the United Nations are structured to promote world peace.
Reporting of world events has been accelerated by space communication.	Advanced technology has facilitated methods of communication. This results in a better informed citizenry.	Current happenings reflect the basic values held by people.	Current happenings reflect the basic values held by people.
Systems of law are universal, but they are not always made by the people who must obey them.	Throughout history, societies have experimented with a variety of governments.	The Constitution empowers Congress to make the laws for the entire nation.	The laws of any country determine the amount of freedom enoyed by its citizens.
There are many different forms of government throughout the world.		Countries of the world have governments which are both alike and different from the United States.	Countries of the world have governments which are both alike and different from the United States.

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

SOCIOLOGY GENERALIZATIONS	KINDERGARTEN	NON-GRADED Levels I, II, III, IV	NON-GRADED Levels V and VI
1. The family is the basic unit of society.	Each family varies in the number of people and the kinship of the members of the group.	Each family is an important and responsible unit of the neighborhood and community.	Many different groups of people share the advantages and responsibilities of the community.
2. Societies require a system of codified and uncodified rules of behavior to survive.	Families and schools need rules and regulations for the good of all.	Human groups have rules. Individuals are rewarded or punished as they conform or deviate from the rules.	Local, state, and national governments have rules to protect the people of our society.
3. Man is influenced by, and must adjust to, the social institutions which he meets in his society.	Families and schools provide opportunities for educational advancement and learning experiences.	Communities have many institutions to meet the needs of their people.	Social institutions have been established by the states to meet the needs not provided by the communities.
4. Individuals, families, and groups tend to become ranked by society into a hierarchy of social classes — according to heredity, wealth, education, occupation, group membership, and other status factors.			
5. Changes within a culture may be brought about through contact with other cultures and societies.			Change does not occur at the same time or at the same rate in all communities. Some communities are more receptive to change than others.
6. Mankind must cooperate and learn respect for one another's culture.	When people live together at home and at school, it is important that all get along well together.	Each family has a responsibility to help make the neighborhood a better place in which to live.	Cooperative educational efforts by the family, community and nation assist in molding patterns of living and thinking.
7. The realization of self is modified by contact with others.	We learn by our associations with others at home and at school.	We learn by associations within our community.	We learn and develop through all social contacts.
8. What is considered acceptable behavior in one society may be considered detrimental behavior in another.	Behavior acceptable on the playground is not always acceptable in the classroom.	Behavior that is acceptable at home is not always acceptable at school.	Behavior at one time and place is not always acceptable at another time and place.
9. National migration develops cultural diversity within a group and culture diffusion among groups.	It is a custom to observe our National holidays.	Various groups observe their own customs and holidays.	The customs of some groups in our state and nation differ from the custom of others.
10. Environment influences man's way of living; man in turn, influences the environment.	Climates and seasons affect man's living habits.	Where man lives affects his living habits.	Different regions in our own country affect how we live.

EXAMPLE 5
LIMA, PENNSYLVANIA

SOCIOLOGY

NON-GRADED Levels VII and VIII	NON-GRADED Levels IX and X	GRADE 5	GRADE 6
Though there may be minor differences, family needs are essentially the same in other countries.	Patterns of family life differ among cultures but the basic functions are the same everywhere.	People from many different social, economic, ethnic, and national groups have settled in the United States.	Different ethnic, social, and national groups influence how location is used, though sometimes limited by environment.
In all societies informal controls of behavior such as customs and mores are reinforced by more formal controls such as laws and institutions.	All communities in the state have laws and customs, but they are not the same everywhere.	Because Americans believe educated citizens are necessary if democracy is to work, they have created a unique system of public education.	As societies grow and their cultures become more complex, their laws and institutions also become more complex and more numerous.
Social institutions are common to all societies, but may differ from country to country.	Technology changes rapidly but social institutions adjust slowly to new conditions.	Social institutions are not of divine origin but are made by man; consequently they can be changed by man as his needs require.	Religion is used by cultures to maintain proper moral behavior.
Families from many parts of the world settled in various areas of our country forming ethnic groups.	We are dependent upon the accumulative cultural heritage received in the past.	The United States has emerged as a predominantly middle class society.	Government institutions are established for such purposes as organizing common defense, administering justice, and preserving domestic order.
Cultures show remarkable diversity from group to group and place to place due to their separate developments.	Communication is important to the cohesiveness of social groups; lack of communication results in inter-cultural misunderstanding.	A common way of life, with regional variabilities has developed in the United States.	Language more distinctly separates man from all other species than any other single trait.
Learning about people in other lands helps us to understand their way of life.	People generally develop a great loyalty to their culture.	Compromise is the normal process for resolving group conflict.	Undeveloped areas do not necessarily wish to copy all aspects of the more modern developed societies.
Associations with other ethnic groups is one basis for our nation's development.	The social self is the picture we have of ourselves reflected from the various groups to which we belong.	An individual's personality is determined by his original and acquired traits.	Though the integrated personality is a unified whole it must have flexible characteristics in order to cope with the diverse global situations.
Societies differ from country to country. What is acceptable in one may be unacceptable in another.	Group membership requires that individuals undertake various roles in society.	Status is achieved by means of the prestige attached in a culture to such characteristics as caste, vocation, age, sex, and individual traits.	The unique way in which an individual relates to others around him gives him a chance to either hinder or benefit his fellowman.
The customs of one nation differ from the customs of others.	Groups differ because of their purposes, their institutions, heritage, and location.	Many times a minority group will leave a larger group and migrate.	Many nations of the world have minority problems similar to those in the United States.
Environmental and cultural differences throughout the world cause man's living habits to be different.	People of many nationalities, races, creeds, colors, and backgrounds have contributed to our nation's progress.	Different societies have different attitudes and values towards the rights of the individual as against the rights and authority of the state	Man must realize he is part of a world community; thus, his attitudes and values should be of a very broad nature.

EXAMPLE 6: STATE OF WYOMING

(An Illustrative Unit – Level II Follows)

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE	GOALS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM	STEP 1 (Kindergarten)	STEP 2 (First Grade)	STEP 3 (Second Grade)
LEVEL I (Kdg., Grades 1 & 2) (Steps of Progression-1, 2 & 3) Step 1-Home and School Step 2-Home, School and Neighborhood Step 3-Community Life (Near Home) A broad introduction to group living. Both formal and informal activities should be provided to give the student needed social skills and understandings of his rights and responsibilities. Every opportunity should be used to informally expand the young student's awareness of the world about him. LEVEL II (Grades 3 & 4) (Steps of Progression-4 & 5) Step 4-A formal study of selected communities of the world. Topics should be selected to give the students an understanding of the varying ways of life. Step 5-United States Regions and Wyoming. LEVEL III (Grades 5 & 6) (Steps of Progression-6 & 7) Step 6-Introduction to United States History. Step 7-Depth study of Western Hemisphere (Canada and Latin America) with continuation of emphasis on varying ways of life. LEVEL IV (Grades 7, 3 & 9) (Steps of Progression-8, 9 & 10) Step 8-Depth study of selected areas of the Eastern Hemisphere (Africa, Asia, Middle East, and Australia.) Step 9-Government Studies (Civics)-local, state, national, and international. A study of careers may be incorporated in schools having no other provision for it. Step 10-Old World Backgrounds to the American Revolutionary Period. LEVEL V (Grades 10, 11 & 12) (Steps of Progression-11, 12 & 13) Step 11-American History. Steps 12 & 13-World Culture and Suggested Electives. ABBREVIATIONS: A–Anthropology PS–Political Science S–Sociology H–History E–Economics G–Geography SP–Social Psychology	1. Recognition of the dignity and worth of the individual. INDIVIDUAL	PS Others have rights.	PS Every person is important as an individual and has equal rights, liberties, and responsibilities.	PS A democratically organized society reaches its highest peak of efficiency when each member assumes his full share of responsibility.
	2. The use of intelligence to improve human living. INTELLIGENCE	S Families and schools provide the opportunities for young people to learn.	A The new things people learn help them change their homes and neighborhoods.	H Everything in print is not necessarily the truth.
	3. Recognition and understanding of world interdependence. INTERDEPENDENCE	E All members of a family are consumers, a limited number are producers of goods and services.	E People in a community represent a variety of occupations.	G The community is linked to the farms from which food is obtained. Farmers get machines and clothing from stores and factories in the cities.
	4. Understanding the major world cultures and culture areas. CULTURE	G Each home is a unique unit.	H Family customs and traditions are passed on from parents to children.	S Communities are made up of various groups of people—families, religious groups, and people of similar national origins.
	5. The intelligent uses of the natural environment. CONSERVATION	G Earth materials have been used to build our homes and schools. Different materials may be used to build new homes or schools.	G In a neighborhood some land is used for houses, some for schools, churches, and stores.	G By using construction specialists such as roofers, electricians, and plumbers, families and communities are able to build homes and schools efficiently.
	6. The vitalization of our democracy through an intelligent use of our public educational facilities. EDUCATION	A As people learn various skills, they gain satisfaction and enjoyment.	H Much can be learned from books, magazines, and newspapers.	PS The state collects taxes and gives some of the money to pay for schools.
	7. The intelligent acceptance, by individuals and groups, of responsibility for achieving democratic social action. RESPONSIBILITY	PS Families and schools need rules and regulations for the good of all.	SP Being a member of a group requires many adjustments.	PS Adults elect men and women from their communities to operate the local government including the schools.
	8. Increasing the effectiveness of the family as a basic social institution. FAMILY	S The family is the basic social group.	S People work together in their homes, schools, and neighborhoods to help meet their basic needs and wants.	E To obtain the things needed, people must do useful work, usually away from home.
	9. The effective development of moral and spiritual values. MORALITY	H Holidays commemorate our historical heritage.	A Many basic values and beliefs are learned early in life from families, schools, neighborhoods, and religious groups.	A Communities close together tend to establish individual and group behavior patterns members must follow to remain in good group standing.
	10. The intelligent and responsible sharing of power in order to attain justice. JUSTICE.	PS People make rules in their home, school, and community for their safety and health.	PS People benefit when everyone obeys laws. Fire drill rules and playground rules are examples of how the school protects its pupils.	PS Local communities make laws. People strive for justice and order through law and government. People are punished for not obeying laws.
	11. The intelligent utilization of scarce resources to attain the widest general well-being. SCARCITY	SP Each human being has basic needs.	E Individuals and families want more than they have. They are constantly faced with choices.	E A person may save part of his income; these savings, in turn, may be used to build stores, barber shops, and factories.
	12. Achievement of adequate horizons of loyalty. LOYALTY	PS Some authority is divided between the home and school.	G Homes are linked to other homes in the community through playmates, those who bring the newspapers, and those who serve their needs.	H In a democracy, all persons should be considered as individuals and be judged on their own merits.
	13. Cooperation in the interest of peace and welfare. PEACE	H What people do and say affects others.	S People working together are more effective when individual feelings are respected and differences found in the group are accepted.	E Community goods and services are produced by its government; individuals pay for government goods and services through taxes.
	14. Achieving a balance between social stability and social change. PROGRESS	H Change may help some people and hurt others.	PS Parents, teachers, and others in a community can work together to bring about a desired change.	S Changes in a community do not always indicate progress.
	15. Widening and deepening the ability to live more richly. SELF-REALIZATION	A We may learn to enjoy action like dances and games, or still objects like pictures and nature, or sounds like poems and music.	E Individuals in America are free to acquire property and use it for their happiness as long as they do not interfere with others.	S Communities have many institutions to meet the needs of their people—schools, churches, art galleries, hospitals, museums, and concert halls.

EXAMPLE 6: State of Wyoming

(An Illustrative Unit — Level II follows)

STEP 4 (Third Grade)

A Human beings everywhere are quite alike in general body appearance.

E Man's effective use of machines has increased his productivity and influenced his and his community's standard of living.

G Some communities are in farming regions, some in forests, some have factories. People of most communities trade with people in other places.

H Customs and ways of doing things often outlive their usefulness.

G Farmers, miners, fishermen, or factory workers use the earth in different ways. Some use it carefully; some wastefully.

E What people earn and demand in goods and services depends greatly on how skilled they are and how much their skills are needed.

H Every community makes certain decisions on matters of public concern that may help or harm future growth and development.

A Different patterns of family life are found in different communities.

PS Rules and regulations are a part of community life everywhere. Self-discipline enables people to live and work in harmony.

PS Governments in the world vary greatly in the degree to which economic freedom is allowed, and in political freedom allowed.

E Because of limited resources and man's ever-increasing needs, each community must make the wisest possible use of all its human and natural resources.

PS There are communities outside the United States that are democratically organized. People in these communities have some of the same ideas held by people in the U. S.

A Communities often cooperate to meet the needs of their people, but sometimes there is conflict among them.

S Changes do not occur at the same time or rate in all communities. Education makes changes possible and usually beneficial.

S Nearly all communities provide some opportunities for self-expression of members and for their pleasure and satisfaction through their culture.

STEP 5 (Fourth Grade)

H Wyoming was the pioneer state in giving equal rights to women.

G The people of Wyoming have learned to utilize natural resources in the state and are attempting to prevent waste.

S Wyoming exchanges beef and mineral products for food and manufactured goods with other states and foreign countries.

G Rugged physical features, scarcity of people, and an abundance of wildlife has helped to retain an aspect of pioneer life in Wyoming.

G Although some of the land in Wyoming is arid, oil and minerals in the ground have produced wealth. Dams have been constructed to hold water for irrigation.

H Early records, diaries, newspapers, artifacts, and historic sites provide much information about the historical development of Wyoming.

PS Because of the high respect for the individual, people in Wyoming have established law and order from a lawless society.

H Families from many parts of the world settled in Wyoming.

S Missionaries were among the pioneers who came to Wyoming. They tried to teach spiritual and moral values to Indians and settlers.

PS There are state laws as well as local rules and regulations. People cannot work and live together without laws.

G Interest in conservation of natural resources has resulted in the establishment of parks, forest preserves, wilderness areas, and in laws to protect game and fish.

H Wyoming people have often been leaders in bringing new improvements to the state and to the entire nation.

S The people of Wyoming have blended various social, ethnic, and economic differences to form typical American citizens.

E Economic limitations of frontier self-sufficiency had to be accepted until adequate means of transportation and communication were established.

G The beauty of the environment influences the people. The beauty of Wyoming mountains and wildlife has brought artists to Wyoming and has resulted in beautiful paintings and stories.

STEP 6 (Fifth Grade)

PS Under a free government, individuals have many opportunities for self-development.

E The idea, "dignity of labor," has resulted in a reasonable reward for work and economic development.

H Events in Europe influenced the historical development of the countries in the Western Hemisphere.

A Cultural differences among groups stem from their different backgrounds and experiences and may represent various stages of development.

E In underdeveloped areas of the world, people tend to be under-nourished and ill-housed because they lack the machines (capital) to produce goods and services efficiently.

S Americans believe educated citizens are needed to make a democracy work, and they have a unique system of free public education.

A In a democracy we believe people should behave in ways that do not interfere with others' rights.

S Many important group attitudes and biases are developed within the family.

S Every reform began as an individual's private opinion. Moral and spiritual codes are best suited to control society's behavior.

PS People working in groups and governmental agencies can assist all levels of government and increase efficiency of operation.

G Man modifies his environment to meet his needs.

A The varied backgrounds of the many groups that came to the Western Hemisphere have blended to form new regional culture patterns.

PS Local, state, and national governments often assist one another in meeting the needs of the people.

A Some changes are brought about by conflicts between conflicting cultures, some through cooperation and other peaceful means.

A As people met their basic needs, they had more time for self-expression through the arts: literature, music, painting, and sculpture.

STEP 7 (Sixth Grade)

H Not all cultures value freedom and human liberty equally.

E The people of Latin America are impatiently searching for ways to improve their standard of living.

E Nations need help to help themselves. Failure of some culture areas or nations to participate economically with other nations has slowed their economic growth.

A People of different cultures have different points of view based on their customs and manner of living.

E Distribution of natural resources on earth is significant to economic, social, and political development. Man uses its resources for his benefit, and may remove, modify, or destroy them.

PS As cultures and technology become more complex, there is a need for better educational institutions and larger governmental units.

PS Governments differ from country to country, but power ultimately rests on consent of the governed. Governments providing peaceful change of leadership are more prosperous.

S Habits of obedience to rules and authority are first learned in the family.

H The Roman Catholic Church has had an important influence on the moral and spiritual values of Latin America.

PS All cultures have systems of laws to promote order, and, as a society becomes more complex, it requires and develops more laws.

G An underdeveloped area with dense population faces the problem of using inadequate resources for raising needed food and also providing for expansion of industry.

E In some cultures all man's energies are needed to produce enough food to survive. In such cultures the concept of democracy may be poorly developed and seem unimportant to individuals.

A Conflict among groups tends to be reduced when they understand and appreciate each other's culture.

A All cultures do not agree on what constitutes progress. Powerful groups, institutions, and traditions often oppose change.

A All cultures have been enriched by the contributions of talented persons in technology, the arts, and government.

EXAMPLE 6: STATE OF WYOMING
ILLUSTRATIVE UNIT - LEVEL II

A DESERT ENVIRONMENT
and its effect on people who live there

I. Descriptive Statement

Of all the places man might make his home, none is less inviting that the desert. A desert life is often one of loneliness, a search for food and shelter, and a constant effort to change oneself or one's environment to weaken the harshness of desert living.

II. Provocative or Leading Questions

What are some of the important features of deserts, and what effects do these features have on life there?

III. Suggested Disciplines (Interdisciplinary)

1. Geography
2. Anthropology
3. Economics

IV. Specific Skills to be Developed

A. Locate the major deserts of the world on a physical map and on a globe. Indicate the latitudes where they are found, noticing particularly the great amount of desert or steppe land between the 15th and 35th parallels.

B. Prepare a bar graph on one or several of the following features of a desert environment:
   1. Precipitation
   2. Major minerals
   3. Population density
   4. Diurnal variation of temperature

C. Establish a cause and effect relationship between the climatic conditions and the plant response and/or animal response to these conditions. The cactus and camel would be excellent examples, respectively. Such questions as these might be stimulating:
   1. How has the camel responded to the lack of water in the desert environment?
   2. What are the advantages of his padded feet and knees in a desert climate?
   3. What does the hump of the camel store? Why is this important in a desert climate?

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[3] Reprinted from *Discovering the Structure of Social Studies* by James A. Womack, Benziger Brothers, Inc., New York, 1968, pp. 93-99.

D. Develop an understanding of geographic terms relating to deserts. These terms might include: diurnal variation, temperature, precipitation, relief, oasis, nomad, pastoral nomads, steppe, humidity, climate, domesticated animals, date palms, and nitrates.

E. Ask students to offer reasons for the cause and effect relations of certain areal conditions of physical geography. They might be asked to explain:
   1. How the plant life and agriculture of the desert reflect climatic conditions there. These climatic conditions would include light, sporadic rainfall, great extremes in daily temperature, poor quality soils, and high velocity winds with strong gusts.
   2. The influence of mountain barriers on trade winds affecting precipitation on both the windward and leeward sides of mountains.

F. Ask students to study any oasis and to cite the various and often ingenious ways in which the people living there have preserved and made maximum use of the scarce water. Such oases as the Nile, Lower Indus Valley, or the Imperial Valley of the U. S. would be excellent examples. In this study of oases, the students should pay attention to such geographic factors as:
   1. Location of river streams, usually found in surrounding highlands several hundreds of miles away.
   2. Importance of soil and mud deposits made by the river systems.
   3. Importance of scarce water for irrigation agriculture, including crops grown during flood seasons such as sorghum and rice.

V. Answers to the Provocative or Leading Questions

A. The important features of a desert environment are:
   1. The harshness of the climate for all forms of life. This includes the ever constant lack of water, the blinding winds, the scorching heat, and the general aridity of the area.
   2. The effects of the lack of water on plant life, animal life, and human life. Plant root systems probe deep into the soil to gain water, while many animals including the camel and sheep have made biological adaptation to survive in the harsh environment.
   3. The existence of a few minerals usually resulting from salt water deposits. These minerals often include sodium nitrates, guano, salt and borax.

B. The important effects of the harsh desert environment on man are:
   1. Man has been forced to adapt to the desert environment, and yet has also been able to change his environment to meet his own needs. Man has adapted to the desert environment in many ways. Some are:
      a. He has become nomadic, wandering from place to place in search of pastoral land and water. This constant wandering has forced him to live in easily movable tents and to live on the bare essentials of life. Often the competitive desert life, which is due to scarce resources, had made him a fierce warrior and highly suspicious of others. Often too, the isolation of his life has led him to become religious.
      b. Man has adapted to his environment by wearing white clothes to offset the intensity of the heat, by domesticating animals which he uses for multiple purposes, and by his own self-control in using water.

C. Man has adapted his environment to meet his own needs. Some adaptions are:
   1. He has developed many ingenious methods of irrigation to conserve the scarce water and to insure its availability when needed. These methods of irrigation have permitted him to develop an agricultural system on the banks of oases. He has also discovered such plants as the date palm which can thrive in the arid desert climate.
   2. He has domesticated animals and found many and various uses for them. They serve him as pack animals, as sources of transportation, protection, food and drink, and often even his shelter is made from animal skin.
   3. He has helped to develop mining regions of nitrates, salt, and borax, and even petroleum. Around these mining and industrial regions, villages and settlements have sprung up to serve as commercial villages.

VI. Content Sources

A. Books and Periodicals

Beim, Jerrold, *Erick on the Desert*, New York: William Morrow and Co., Inc., 1953 (1-3). This picture storybook for slower readers about a newcomer's first experience on the Arizona desert provides a good view of the desert and its life (Student/Teacher source).

Carpenter, Frances, *Our Little Friends of the Arabian Desert*, New York: American Book Company, 1934 o.p. (3-4). Describes the daily life of two children belonging to a Bedouin tribe, and the activities of the tribe through a year of wandering and trading. Stress is laid upon the influence of natural environment on manners and customs (Student/Teacher source).

Disney, Walt, productions, *Walt Disney's Living Desert* by Jane Warner and the staff of the Walt Disney Studio. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1965. Goldencraft (1-6) (Student/Teacher source).

Epstein, Samuel, & Epstein, B. W., *All About the Desert*, New York: Random House, Inc., 1957 (4-7). A fascinating report on the deserts of the world with a scientific explanation for their parched state. Includes a description of the plant and animal life inhabiting the desert (Student/Teacher source).

Goetz, Delia, *Deserts*, New York: William Morrow and Co., Inc., 1956 (4-6). An interesting description of desert lands and the plants and animals that inhabit the desert (Student/Teacher source).

Kissin, Ruth, *Desert Animals*, New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1947. o.p. Cadmus. (1-3). A rhymed text and colored illustrations present an attractive picture of life in the desert. For slower readers (Student/Teacher source).

Malkus, A. S. *Sidi, Boy of the Desert*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1956 (5-7). An absorbing story of a Bedouin boy and his search for his Arabian colt. A good picture of desert life (Student/Teacher source).

Patch, E. M. and Fenton, C. L., *Desert Neighbors*, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. o.p. (4-6). These studies of desert wildlife picture with clarity and beauty the atmosphere of the desert (Student/Teacher source).

Reed, W. M., *Sky is Blue*, New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1940 (4-6). This elementary scientific book on geology and weather has a chapter (pp. 109-120) on "Why do we have deserts?" For good readers (Student/Teacher source).

VII. Generalizations to be Discovered. Citations of Proof

A. Man adapts himself to his environment, both biologically and culturally, and adapts his environment to meet his own needs.
   1. Nomadic people have adapted themselves to desert conditons.
   2. The people of Israel have changed much of their desert environment to meet their own needs.
   3. The early American colonists in both Jamestown and Massachusetts were forced to adapt themselves to their environment.

B. The harsher the physical environment the more time man must spend meeting his basic needs and the less time he has for leisure.
   1. Consider the early American frontiersman.
   2. Consider the Eskimo or the Aborigines of Australia.

C. Natural resources become valuable only when man uses them, and his manner of using them reflects the needs and level of technology in his society.
   1. Consider the value of oil deposits today as compared to the period before the British and American firms began to exploit them.
   2. Consider the contrasting technology used in coal mines today and in the past.

D. Since natural resources are limited and human wants relatively unlimited, every society has developed some means of allocating resources.
   1. Consider the market place in a capitalist country.
   2. Consider a quota or ration system.

E. All societies have some form of law and organization through which necessary activities are performed.
   1. Consider a modern urban government.
   2. Consider the social arrangement of an important Indian tribe, such as the Apache or Zuni.

F. Every culture attempts to perpetuate itself by transmitting its values and mores to the young.

G. Man's physical environment and environment and climate interact to condition the daily activities of man.
   1. Consider the people of Asia during the monsoon season.
   2. Consider the mountainous people of the Himalayas and the people of a Maine coastal fishing village.
   3. Contrast living in Florida with living in Alaska during the winter months.

H. The population density of an area is often in direct proportion to the suitability of the area in terms of the ways of making a living.
   1. Consider the population density of the wheat farms of the Great Plains in terms of the ways of making a livelihood there.
   2. Consider the population density of a major urban center in terms of the numerous ways of making a livelihood there.

I. The inter-relationship of man and his physical environment have contributed to diverse cultural development.
   1. Consider the Indian tribes' cultures in terms of their respect and reverence for their physical environment.
   2. Consider the Eskimo.

Appendix B

PUBLISHERS OF CURRICULUM MATERIALS

ABT Publications
55 Wheeler St.
Cambridge, MA 02138

Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.
2725 Sand Hill Rd.
Menlo Park, CA 94025

Allyn and Bacon
470 Atlantic Ave.
Boston, MA 02210

American Book Co.
450 West 33rd St.
New York, NY 10003

American Guidance Services
Publishers' Building
Circle Pines, MN 55014

American Science and Engineering
20 Overland St.
Boston, MA 02215

American Universities Field Staff
3 Lebanon St.
Hanover, NH 03755

Argus Communications
7440 Natchez Ave.
Niles, IL 60648

Atheneum Publishers
122 42nd St.
New York, NY 10017

Avon Books
959 Eighth Ave.
New York, NY 10028

Bantam Books
666 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10019

Benefic Press
10300 W. Roosevelt Rd.
Westchester, NY 60153

Benziger, Bruce & Glencoe
8701 Wilshire Blvd.
Beverly Hills, CA 90211

BFA Educational Media
P.O. Box 1795
Santa Monica, CA 90406

Bobbs-Merrill Co.
4300 W. 62nd St.
Indianapolis, IN 46206

Bowmar Noble Publishers
4563 Colorado Blvd.
Los Angeles, CA 90039

Broadside Press
12651 Old Mill Place
Detroit, MI 48238

Cambridge Book Co.
488 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10022

CEBCO/Pflaum
104 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10011

Center for Global Perspectives
218 E. 18th St.
New York, NY 10003

Center for the Humanities
2 Holland Ave.
White Plains, NY 10603

Changing Times Education Service
1729 H Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20006

Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.
1300 Alum Creek Dr.
Columbus, OH 43216

Civic Education Services
1725 K Street, N.W.
Suite 1009
Washington, DC 20006

Congressional Quarterly
1414 22nd St., N.W.
Washington, DC 20037

Coronet Instruction Media
65 E. South Water St.
Chicago, IL 60601

Creative Classroom Activities
P.O. Box 1144
Sun Valley, CA 91352

Current Affairs
24 Danbury Rd.
Wilton, CT 06897

Curriculum Development Associates
1211 Connecticut Ave., N.W.
Suite 414
Washington, DC 20036

Dell Publishing Co.
1 Dag Hammarskjold Plaza
245 East 47th St.
New York, NY 10017

Denoyer-Geppert Audio-Visual
5235 Ravenswood Ave.
Chicago, IL 60640

Dial Press
1 Dag Hammarskjold Plaza
245 E. 47th St.
New York, NY 10017

Doubleday and Co.
245 Park Ave.
New York, NY 10017

Educational Design
47 W. 13th St.
New York, NY 10011

Educational Dimensions Group
P.O. Box 126
Stamford, CT 06904

Educational Progress Corp.
4900 S. Lewis Ave.
P.O. Box 45663
Tulsa, OK 74145

EMC Corp.
180 E. Sixth Ave.
St. Paul, MN 55101

Facts on File
119 W. 57th St.
New York, NY 10019

Farrar, Straus, & Giroux
19 Union Square W.
New York, NY 10003

Fearon Publishers
6 Davis Dr.
Belmont, CA 90402

Feminist Press
State University of New York
P.O. Box 334
Old Westbury, NY 11568

J.G. Ferguson Co.
Subsidiary of Doubleday
501 Franklin Avenue
Garden City, NY 11530

Fideler Publishing
31 Ottawa, N.W.
Grand Rapids, MI 49502

Follett Publishing Co.
1010 W. Washington Blvd.
Chicago, IL 60607

Friendship Press
475 Riverside Dr., Room 772
New York, NY 10027

Garrard Publishing Co.
1607 N. Market St.
Champaign, IL 61820

Ginn and Co.
191 Spring St.
Lexington, MA 02173

Globe Book Co.
175 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10010

Goodyear Publishing Co.
1640 Fifth St.
Santa Monica, CA 90401

Greenhaven Press
P.O. Box 831
Anoka, MN 55303

Guidance Associates
757 Third Ave.
New York, NY 10017

Harcourt Brace Jovanovich
757 Third Ave.
New York, NY 10017

Harper and Row
School Department
2500 N. Crawford Ave.
Evanston, IL 60201

Hart Publishing Co.
15 W. Fourth St.
New York, NY 10012

Hayden Book Co.
50 Essex St.
Rochelle Park, NJ 07662

D.C. Heath and Co.
125 Spring St.
Lexington, MA 02173

Holt, Rinehart and Winston
383 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10017

Houghton Mifflin Co.
1 Beacon St.
Boston, MA 02107

Instructional Simulations
2147 University Ave.
St. Paul, MN 55114

Interact Co.
Box 262
Lakeside, CA 92040

Interculture Associates
P.O. Box 277
Thompson, CT 06277

Julian Messner
1 W. 39th St.
New York, NY 10018

Laidlaw Bros.
Thatcher and Madison
River Forest, IL 60305

Learning Ventures
666 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10019

Leswing Communications
750 Adrian Way
San Rafael, CA 94903

Lexington Books
125 Spring St.
Lexington, MA 02173

J.B. Lippincott Co.
E. Washington Square
Philadelphia, PA 19105

Little, Brown & Co.
34 Beacon St.
Boston, MA 02906

Macmillan Publishing Co.
866 Third Ave.
New York, NY 10022

McDougal, Littell and Co.
P.O. Box 1667
Evanston, IL 60204

McGraw-Hill Book Co.
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

Multimedia Productions
P.O. Box 5097
Stanford, CA 94305

National Geographic Society
17th and M Sts., N.W.
Washington, DC 20036

New Dimensions Publishing Co.
151 W. 25th St.
New York, NY 10001

Newsweek
444 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10022

Nystrom Division of Carnation Co.
3333 Elston Ave.
Chicago, IL 60618

Oxford University Press
200 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10016

Pathescope Educational Media
71 Weymon Ave.
New Rochelle, NY 10802

Pennant Educational Materials
8265 Commercial St.
Suite 14
La Mesa, CA 92041

Pergamon Press
Maxwell House
Fairview Park
Elmsford, NY 10677

Pitman Publishing Corp.
6 E. 43rd St.
New York, NY 10017

Praeger Publishing
111 Fourth Ave.
New York, NY 10003

Prentice-Hall
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632

Prentice-Hall Media
150 White Plains Rd.
Tarrytown, NY 10591

QED Productions
P.O. Box 1608
Burbank, CA 91507

Rand McNally & Co.
P.O. Box 7600
Chicago, IL 60680

Random House
201 E. 50th St.
New York, NY 10022

William H. Sadlier
11 Park Place
New York, NY 10007

Scholastic Magazines
50 W. 44th St.
New York, NY 10036

Science & Mankind
2 Holland Ave.
White Plains, NY 10603

Science Research Associates
155 N. Wacker Dr.
Chicago, IL 60608

Scott, Foresman & Co.
1900 E. Lake Ave.
Glenview, IL 60025

Selective Educational Equipment
3 Bridge St.
Newton, MA 02195

Silver Burdett Co.
8301 Ambassador Rd.
Dallas, TX 75247

Simile II
218 12th St.
P.O. Box 910
Del Mar, CA 92014

Simon & Schuster
1 W. 39th St.
New York, NY 10018

Social Issues Resources Series
1200 Quince Orchard Blvd.
Gaithersburg, MD 20760

Spoken Arts
310 North Ave.
New Rochelle, NY 10801

Steck-Vaughn
807 Brazos St.
P.O. Box 2028
Austin, TX 78767

Stephen Bosustow
1649 11th St.
Santa Monica, CA 90404

Sunburst Communications
39 Washington Place
Pleasantville, NY 10570

Taylor Publishing Co.
1550 Mockingbird Lane
Box 597
Dallas, TX 75221

Teaching Resources Films
2 Station Plaza
Bedford Hills, NY 10507

Thomas Nelson Co.
30 E. 42nd St.
New York, NY 10017

Time-Life Multimedia
100 Eisenhower Dr.
P.O. Box 644
Paramus, NJ 07652

Wadsworth Publishing Co.
10 Davis Dr.
Belmont, CA 94002

Washington Square Press
630 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10020

Franklin Watts
520 W. Johnston
Hicksville, NY 11801

West Publishing Co.
170 Old Country Rd.
Mineola, NY 10501

Westinghouse Learning Corp.
2400 Ardmore Blvd.
Pittsburgh, PA 15221

Winston Press
25 Groveland Terrace
Minneapolis, MN 55403

Xerox Educational Publications
1250 Fairwood Ave.
P.O. Box 444
Columbus, Ohio 43216

Appendix C

ORGANIZATIONS AND PUBLISHERS OFFERING OBJECTIVES, ITEMS, OR OBJECTIVE-REFERENCED TESTS IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Name and Address	Brief Description of Resources	Subject Area	Grade Level
COMBAT (Computer-Based Test Project) Teaching Research Division Oregon College of Education Monmouth, OR 97361 (503) 838-1220	Instructional objectives in all school curricular areas. Pool of items for identified instructional objectives. Over 36,000 objectives and items.	Social studies (15,000)	Elementary, secondary
CTB/McGraw-Hill Manchester Rd. Manchester, MO 63011 (314) 227-1600	Objective-referenced bank of items and tests (ORBIT). Objective-referenced tests can be constructed in social studies on a contract basis.	Social studies (all areas)	Elementary, secondary
Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08541 (609) 921-9000	Sequential tests of educational progress. These have been categorized by broad objectives in the social studies.	Social studies	Elementary, secondary
Institute for Educational Research 1400 W. Maple Ave. Downers Grove, IL 60515 (312) 858-8060	Objectives and items.	Social studies	Intermediate, secondary
Instructional Objectives Exchange (IOX) P.O. Box 24095 Los Angeles, CA 90024 (213) 474-4531	Lists of objectives and items, criterion-referenced tests.	Social studies, attitude/maturity, critical thinking, drug knowledge	Elementary, secondary

Name and Address	Brief Description of Resources	Subject Area	Grade Level
Minnesota School Assessment 550 Cedar St. St. Paul, MN 55101 (612) 296-6005	Objectives and test items matched to objectives.	Social studies	Objectives, grades K-12; test items, grades 4, 8, 11
National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) 300 Lincoln Tower 1860 Lincoln St. Denver, CO 80203 (303) 861-4917	Objectives and test exercises, reports of national test results.	Citizenship, career and occupational development, social studies, basic life skills	Ages 9, 14, 17
Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory 400 Lindsay Bldg. 710 S.W. Second Ave. Portland, OR 97204 (503) 248-6946	Performance and test items.	Study skills (reference and library skills)	Grades 1-8
Question Pool Management System Shawnee Mission N.W. High School 7235 Antioch Shawnee Mission, KS 66204 (913) 631-4646	Social studies objectives.	Social studies	Elementary, secondary
Scholastic Testing Service 480 Meyer Rd. Bensenville, IL 60106 (312) 766-7150	Survival skill objective-referenced tests, including a few social studies items. Social studies objective-referenced tests can be customized on a contract basis.	Survival skills	Elementary, secondary